HISTORY

OF

GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL



Dr. P. S. SUBRAHMANYA SASTRE

HISTORY

GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

AND THEIR RELATION TO THE GRAMMATICAL LITERATURE IN SANSKRIT

[THESIS SUBMITTED FOR THE PH. D. DEGREE OF THE MADRAS UNIVERSITY 1930.]

BY Dr. P. S. SUBRAHMANYA SASTRI

(Principal, Rajah's College of Sanskrit and Tamil Studies, Tiruvadi and formerly Professor of Oriental Studies, Bishop Heber College, Trichinopoly and Asst. Editor, Tamil Lexicon, University of Madras).



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1934

Respectfully Dedicated

My Acarya

Mahamahopadhyaya Tidgavacuspati Darsana Halanidhi Kulapeti

Frof. S. Kuppuswami Sastriar Avl.,

M.A. F. & J. (Rold.)



PREFACE.

The author of Tolkappiyam may be said, for all practical purposes, to be the father of grammatical theories in Tamil Language, since the works of his teacher Agastya and of Agastya's eleven other disciples are not now available. Tamil Grammatical Theories have proceeded along two lines of development. One may be characterised as a progressive line and the other, a zigzag one. On the one hand, new theories came to be propounded and old theories came to be readjusted by grammarians, like the authors of Vīracoliyam, Nannūl, Pirayokavivêkam, Ilakkanavilakkam, Tonnalvilakkam, etc., in the light of contemporary tendencies in literature and the inevitable changes brought on by usage. On the other hand, there appear to have been two schools of thought of an entirely different nature which have, by their influence, dragged the progress of grammatical theories along a zigzag course. Tolkappiyanar belonged to one of them and the author of Viracoliyam represented the other. And among the later grammarians there is observable an interesting rhythmic oscillation of views between these two opposite schools. Nēminātam and Nannāl which succeeded Vīracōliyam switched back to Tolkappiyanar's view-point, while Pirayōkavivēkam which forms the next important contribution reverted to Viracolivam school. The more recent grammatical works tend to converge towards Tolkappiyanar's school.

Probably for the first time, an attempt will now be made to present grammatical theories in Tamil Language in a historical setting and to examine how far they were influenced by the corresponding theories in Sanskrit grammatical literature. This thesis embodies the result of my independent work in the sphere of Tamil Grammatical literature. It may also incidentally enable one to appreciate the value of Tolkappiyam in any endeavour to

account for several interesting grammatical categories in Tamil from the standpoint of modern linguistic history. In its preparation for the press, I have had the advantage of using the suggestions made by the examiners who valued the thesis submitted by me.

Attention is solicited, in particular, to the following portion of my thesis, in which will be found embodied such suggestions and ideas as I may claim to be original in the sense that they were arrived at through my independent study and investigation since 1925, and that they are set forth by me for the first time, so far as I know.

- The real nature of uriccol according to Tolkappiyanar.
 Vide pp. 199 to 203.
- The final element in the indeclinable participle forms koļīi, acaii, irīi.

 Vide pp. 150 to 153.
- How kal which was the pluralising particle only of asrinai nouns in the ancient period came to be used in the verbs of uyartinai also.
 Vide p. 164.
- The possible explanation from the literary evidence of the metamorphosis of the ancient ān (the third-case-suffix) and in (the fifth-case-suffix) into āl and il respectively in the later periods.

 Vide pp. 115 and 116.
- The explanation regarding the origin of 'a' the sixthcase-suffix.
 Vide p. 114.
- The possible origin of 'a' in the participles ceytinga and ceyta.
 Vide p. 186.
- History of the metamorphosis of nin (2nd personal pronoun singular base of the ancient period) to un of the later periods from literary evidence.
 Vide pp. 132 and 133.
- Probable origin of the gerunds ending in pān, vān,
 pākkū and vākkū in the later periods. Vide pp. 193 and 194.
- The possibility of Tolkappiyanar having had for his model the works noted below for the sections noted against each:—

SECTION:

(a) 1st & 2nd sections in Eluttatikāram dealing with the initial and final vowels and consonants and the

(b) 3rd section in Eluttatikāram dealing with the place of production of

sonants in Tamil words.

(c) Itaiyiyal in Collatikaram.

(d) Uriyiyal in Collatikaram,

k, n, c, n, t, n, p, m, etc.

medial con-

MODEL:

Similar sections in Pratiśākhyas in general and Rg-Vēda Prātiśākhya in particular.

Vide pp. 41 and 42; 61 to 64.

Similar sections in Pratiśākhyas in general and Taittirīya Prātiśākhya in cular. Vide pp. 45 and 46.

1st chapter in Yaska's Nirukta. Vide pp. 197 & 198.

2nd, 3rd and 4th Chapters in Yaska's Nirukta.

Vide pp. 201 and 202.

10. The probable reason why Tolkappiyanar mentions that there is no single letter having three matras. Vide pp. 34 to 36.

Similarity between Tol. E. 83 dealing with origin of speech sounds and certain verses in Panini Siksa.

12. The difference between Sanskrit ē, āi, ō and āu and Tamil ē, ai, ō and au. Vide pp. 28 to 31.

13. The untenability of Dr. Caldwell's Theory of Convertibility of surds and sonants in the ancient period of Tamil Langu-Vide pp. 54 to 58. age,

The untenability of Dr. Caldwell's idea regarding the origin of Sanskrit cerebrals:-One of the four points mentioned against his view is the difference in the pronunciation of Tamil t and n and Sanskrit t and n at the time of Tolkappiyanar.

Vide pp. 58 and 59.

The nature of aytam at the time of Tolkappiyanar.

Vide p. 65.

16. A critical examination of Dr. Caldwell's remark that cases in Tamil were arranged in imitation of Sanskrit.

Vide pp. 222 and 223.

 That Tolkāppiyanār suggests the definitions of peyar, viņai, iţaiccol and uriccol from their names; the difference in the interpretation of the sūtras Tol. Col. 198, 249 and 297.

Vide pp. 142, 195 and 200.

- New interpretation in the construction of words in the following three types of sentences:—
 - (i) nampi ponperiyan Vide pp. 227 and 228.
 - (ii) cākāţum accu irum Vide pp. 22 and 22.
 - (iii) alattarkariyai arivum īramum

Vide pp. 229 and 230.

- New interpretation of the sūtra Tol. Col. 61 and the word vivai in Tol. Col. 112.
 Vide pp. 228; 142 f.n.
- Refutation that vowel consonants are not secondary sounds.

 Vide p. 16.
- How the authors of Viracoliyam and Perayokavivekam did not view the Tamil grammatical theories through a proper perspective. Vide pp. 116; 165 to 167; 194; 204 and 205.

All the important statements and conclusions in this thesis are adequately supported by appropriate illustrations from literature and inscriptions and to some extent from the spoken language. Most of the relevant references are given in footnotes. I have made an attempt to use the decimal system in the arrangement of topics. I leave it to the readers to see how far this helps to trace the evolution of Tamil language and its grammar.

Tolkāppiyaṇār has not stated much about accent in Tamil. Had it resembled udātta, anudātta, svarita, and pracaya as found in Vedic language, he would surely have made mention of them. It seems to me that the later grammarians have smuggled udātta, anudātta, etc. into the Tamil grammatical system without any real support from the history of Tamil language. The accent that is used at present differs for each group of districts. For instance, in Trichinopoly vandīnga (corrupted form of vantīrkal) receives the accent on the first syllable, but on 'i' in Madras. Hence I have not included accent as one of the topics in this thesis.

My thanks are due to Dr. R. Vaidyanathaswami Aiyar, M.A., D. Sc., Reader in Mathematics, University of Madras for having kindly translated for me into English the articles of Mr. J. Vinson found in Journal Asiatique and to Prof. D. S. Sarma, M.A. of the Presidency College, Madras for having gone through the manuscript and given some suggestions. I am deeply indebted to my Ācārya Mahāmahöpādhyāya Vidyāvācaspati Daršanakalānidhi Kulapati Prof. S. Kuppuswami Sastriyar Avl., M.A., I.E.S., for having been very kind to go through this book in the manuscript and the proof stages. I thank the Syndicate of the University of Madras for having permitted me to publish the thesis at my cost and the authorities of the Journal of Oriental Research for having readily relieved me of the burden by undertaking to publish it themselves.



BIBLIOGRAPHY AND ABBREVIATIONS USED

How reference Abbrevia-

Name of the Work:

	is given:	tion word
TAMIL:	is given.	tion used_
GRAMMAR:		
 Tolkāppiyam* 		Tol.
Eluttatikāram with the com-	Sūtra No.	E.
mentaries of Ilampūraņar (Kanni-		
yappa Mudaliar Edn.) and Nacci-		
nārkkiņiyar (Damodaram Pillai Edn.)	0	
Collatikaram with the com-	Do.	Col.
mentaries of—	0/	
1. Ilampūranar (Coomara-	Do.	Ilam.
samy Naidu & Sons)	77名體膜	
Cēṇāvaraiyar (Śaiva Sid-	Do.	Cēṇā.
dhanta Publishing Society)		
3. Teyvaccilaiyār (Mss. at	Do.	Tey.
Tanjore Palace Library)		
4. Naccinārkkiņiyar (Damo-	Do.	Nac.
daram Pillai Edn.)		202074
 Vīracōliyam (Damodaram Pillai Edn.) 	Stanza No.	v.
Do. Cantippaţalam	Do.	VC.
Do. Vērrumaippaţalam	Do.	V.V.
Do. Tokaippaṭalam	Do.	V.T.

^{*} Sūtras in Eluttatikāram of Tolkāppiyam are here numbered as they are found in Tolkāppiyam published in the Journal of Oriental Research and those in Collatikāram as they are found in Cēņāvaraiyam and the sūtras in Naņņāl as they are found in Krishnamachariyar's Edition with Kāṇṭikaiyurai.

Vīracōliyam Tattitappaṭalam	Do.	V.Tat.
Do. Tātuppaṭalam	Do.	V.Tāt.
Do. Kiriyāpatappaṭalam	Do.	V.K.
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(b) Cańkaranamaccivāyap- pulavarurai (Do. Edn.)	Do.	Na.C.
(c) Kāṇṭikaiyurai (Krishna- machariyar's Edn.)	Do.	Na.K.
5. Pirayōkavivēkam (Ārumuka- nāvalar Edn.)	Stanza	P.V.
6. Ilakkanavilakkam (Damoda- ram Pillai Edn.)	Sūtra	I.V.
 Ilakkaņakkottů (Ārumuka- nāvalar 3rd Edn.) 	Stanza	I.K.
8. Tonnalvilakkam	Sūtra	To.V.
Tolkāppiyamutarcūttiravirutti (Ārumukanāvalar 3rd Edn.) Ilakkaņaviļakka-e-cūrāvaļi	Page	T.M.V.
(Ārumukanāvalar, 3rd Edn.)		
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 Tolkāppiya-c-collatikāra-k- kurippû 		

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Cankam Period:

 Puranāṇūrů (Mahāmahō- Stanza and line P.N. pādhyāya Dr. V. Swaminatha Aiyar's 2nd Edn.)

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3.	Pattuppāţţů (Do.)	Page and line	Pattu.
4.	Paripāţal (Do.)	Do.	Pari.
5. Aiyar's	Kalittokai (E. V. Anantarama- Edn.)	Vol. and Do.	Ka.T.
	Akanāṇūrū (V. Rajagopala ar's Edn.)	Page and line	A.N.
7.	Kuruntokai	Stanza	Ku.T.
8.	Kural (Dr. Pope's Edn.)	Do.	K.
	Cilappatikāram (Mahāmahō- āya Dr. V. Swaminatha Aiyar's 3rd Edn.)	Page and line	Cilap.
10.	Maņimēkalai (Do.) Mediaeval Period:	Do.	м.м.
11. tar Ed	Tēvāram (Cuvāmināta Paņţi-	17.83	T.
	Nālāyirativyappirapantam namachariyar's 3rd Edn.) (a) Periyālvārtirumoļi (b) Periyatirumoļi	Do. Do.	P.A.T. P.T.
	Nālaṭiyār (V. Rajagopala gar's Edn.)	Stanza	N.
14. Edn.)	Tiruvācakam (Dr. Pope's	Section and line	T. V.
	Cīvakacintāmaņi (Mahāmahō- āya Dr. V. Swaminatha Aiyar's		C.C.
16.	Perunkatai Do.	Page and line	P.K.
17.	Kallāṭam	Page and Stanza	Kal.
18. G	Kamparāmāyaņam (a) Pālakāņţam (V. M. opalakrishnamachariyar's Edn.		Kampar. B.
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na	(c) Āraņiyakāņţar amachariyar's Edn.)	n (Krish-	Do.	Āra.
*30	(d) Kiţkintākānţan	n (Do.)	Do.	K.
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21.	Kantapurāņam		Vol. and Stanza	Ka.P.
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24.		Metacheni	Do.	Vn.P.
25.	Tanikaippurāņam	n-	Do.	T.P.
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linga M	fudaliar Edn.)			
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J.O.R.

ADDITIONAL ABBREVIATIONS:

Sanskrit	Skt.	Manuscript	Mss.
Telugu	Tel.	Century	Cent.
Canarese	Can.	Commentary	Comm.
Malayālam	Mal.	Stanza	S.
Ceyyuliyal	Ceyyu.	Page	P.
Singular	Sing.	Line	L.

xvi

Plural	Pl.		Number	No.	
Modern	Mo	od.	Foot note	F.n.	
Edition			Kińkara-vataip- paţalam	Kińkarar.	
Tiruvaţitoj paţalar		Tiruvați.	Poruļatikāram	Poruļ.	
Palaviciția kāraņav	1-	Pala.	Vararuci kārika	Var. kār.	



INTRODUCTION.

It is my idea to present, in this thesis, the important grammatical theories in Tamil Language available from the written works of Tamil Grammarians and modern Tamil scholars in their historical setting and their relation to the Grammatical literature in Sanskrit and to discuss them on their merits and in reference to the evidences that may be collected from literary works and inscriptions.

The Grammarians mentioned in Tamil Language are:-

- (1) Agastya with his twelve disciples Tolkāppiyanār, Atanköṭṭācān, Turālinkan, Cempūṭcēy, Vaiyāpikan, Vāyppiyan, Paṇampāran, Kalārampan, Avinayan, Kākkaipāṭiniyan, Narrattan and Vāmanan who are said to have lived in the pre-Christian Era.
- (2) Iļampūraņar otherwise known as Uraiyāciriyar, probably of the 10th century, the earliest known commentator on Tolkāppiyam, the learned treatise on Tamil Grammar written by Tolkāppiyanār.
- (3) Puttamittiranār of the 11th century, the author of Vīracoliyam.
- (4) Peruntēvaņār of the 11th or 12th century the commentator on Vīracoliyam.
- (5) Kuṇavīrapaṇṭitar of the 13th century, the author of Nēminātam.
 - (6) Pavananti of the 13th century, the author of Nannul.
- (7) Mayilainātar, probably of the 14th century, the earliest commentator on Nannūl.
- (8) Cēnāvaraiyar, Teyvaccilaiyār and Naccinārkkiniyar, the well-known commentators on Tolkāppiyam (whose dates are not exactly known).
- (9) Cuppiramaniya-tiţcitar of the 17th century, the author of Pirayökavivēkam.

2 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

- (10) Vaittiyanāta-tēcikar of the 17th century, the author of Ilakkaņaviļakkam.
- (11) Cuvāmināta-tēcikar of the 17th century, the author of llakkaņakkottú.
- (12) Cańkaranamaccivāyappulavar of the 17th century, a commentator on Nannūl.
- (13) The Rev. C. J. Beschi of the 18th century, the author of Tonnúlvilakkam.
- (14) Civañana-munivar of the 18th century, the author of Tolkappiyamutarcuttiravirutti and Hakkanavilakka-c-curavali.
- (15) A few other commentators on Tolkäppiyam and Nannül.

Of them, Agastya and his disciples except Tolkappiyanar, Panamparanar, Atanköttacan and Avinayanar are known to us only from stray references found in the works of others. Panampāranār has written the pāyiram or the introductory stanza to Tolkāppiyam. There, it is mentioned, that Tolkāppiyam was written by Tolkappiyanar after a careful study of the earlier treatises on Tamil grammar, on the model of Aindra-Vyūkarana, dealing with the Tamil Language current both in literature and usage from Tirupati on the north to Cape Comorin on the south; and that it was first read in the court of a Pāṇṭiyaṇ king for recognition before the grammarian Atanköttäcän. Mayilainatar, in his commentary on Nannul, mentions that a treatise on Grammar was written by Avinayanar and it was commented upon by Iraca-p-pavittira-p-pallavataraiyan. But neither the treatise nor the commentary is available at present. The earliest treatise on Grammar that is available at present is only Tolkāppiyam. The later treatises are Vīracoliyam, Nannūl, Ilakkanavilakkam, Pirayökavivěkam, Ilakkanakkottů, Tonnůlvilakkam, Tolkäppiyamutarcüttiravirutti and Ilakkanavilakka-c-cürävali.

The author of Vîracoliyam improves upon Tolkappiyam and mentions a few points with reference to the literature of his time which are not found in it. The author of Nannul has incorporated almost all those contained in Tolkappiyam and Vîracolipam omitting a few, added a few points more and has given expression to them as concisely as possible. In doing so he has not generally followed the important principle observed by Tol-kāppiyaṇār that one sūtra should have only one vidhēya or logical predicate with reference to one uddēśya or logical subject and this mars the beauty of his work. The author of Ilakkaṇa-vilakkam, after making a critical study of Tolkāppiyam and Naṇṇūl, has selected sūtras from them both, given most of them as they are found there and modified the rest a little. Hence he may be treated more as a commentator on Tolkāppiyam and Naṇṇūl than an author of a separate treatise. Pirayōka-vivēkam is a treatise by itself where the author imports the technical expressions and theories of Sanskrit Grammar. The author of Ilakkaṇakkottū summarises in a few sūtras the ideas contained in the works of his predecessors. Hence he may be taken as an author of a compendium rather than an independent work.

The author of Tonnülvilakkam incorporates most of the sūtras found in Nannül, but modifies them wherever he differs from it. But in commentary on the same he has made very good use of the literature available to him.

Tolkāppiyamutarcūttiravirutti is an elaborate discussion on the first sūtra of Eluttatikāram of Tolkāppiyam, where the author avails himself of the opportunity to discuss the important views on Phonology and Accidence expressed by Tolkāppiyanār, by his commentators Uraiyāciriyar, Cēnāvaraiyar and Naccinārkkiniyar, and the author of Nannūl, with the aid of his ripe knowledge both of Tamil and Sanskrit.

Ilakkaṇaviļakkaccūrāvaļi is only a criticism on the views of the author of Ilakkaṇaviļakkam where he differs from the author of Naṇṇūl.

I may also mention here that Tolkappiyanar has worked out a beautiful Tamil Grammar on the models of Sanskrit Pratisakhyas, Yaska's Nirukta, Panini's Sikşa and Panini's Grammar or that of his predecessors without doing the least violence to the genius of the Tamil Language. It is also said by Panamparanar that he based his work on Aindra-Vyakarana; but tradition says that all the eight treatises on Sanskrit Grammar including Aindra

4 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

were ousted by Pāṇini's Aṣṭādhyāyī. The only reference which connects Indra with Sanskrit Grammar is found in Patañjali's Mahābhāṣya where it is said that he studied Sanskrit Grammar word by word under Bṛhaspati for 1000 celestial years and was not able to complete it.¹

There is striking correspondence between Kātantra and Tolkappiyam in respect of arrangement of topics and use of technical terms such as vibhakti = vērrumai, dīrgha = neţil, hrasva = huril etc. From this Dr. Burnell2 seems to infer that Tolkappivanār followed Kātantra and Prātiśākhyas which, according to him, represented the Aindra School, instead of Pāṇini's Grammar and also conjectures that Tolkappiyam may be assigned to the 8th century after Christ,3 But from inscriptional and other evidences it is generally believed that the works of Sangam period could not have been produced later than 5th century A. D. and some of them like Purananuru and Patirruppattu could be taken to the beginning of the Christian Era, and Tolkappiyam is earlier than all of them. Consistently with this widely prevalent belief, it could hardly be held that Tolkappiyanar had for his model the Katantra Grammar which is said to belong to the first century after Christ.4

An attempt is made in this thesis to show that Tolkappiyanar adapted not only the Sanskrit Grammatical terms and the arrangement, but also many of the Sanskrit grammatical theories. For instance, his account of the origin of speech-sounds and the function of case-suffixes is a close reproduction of what is found in old Sanskrit Grammars; while, however, in the treatment of compounds, and the initial and the final sounds of words, he appears to have made certain alterations and adaptations to suit the requirements of Tamil language. On the other hand, the authors of Vīracoliyam and Pirayōkavivēkam have imitated

Bṛ haspatih Indrāya divyam varşa-sahasram pratipadoktānām śabdānām śabda-pārāyanam provāca, nāntam jagāma.

^{2.} B. A. S. p. 8.

^{3.} B. A. S. p. 55 f.n.

⁴ B. S. G. p. 83.

Pāṇini's Grammar in declension, conjugation and word-formation to such an extent that they have completely distorted the perspective through which the linguistic phenomena of the Tamil Language should be analysed and evaluated. They have also incorporated in their works a close translation of Vararuci's Kārikās on Sanskrit compounds.

It will also be seen from the following pages that the other grammarians like the authors of Nannūl and Ilakkanaviļakkam have, in general, followed Tolkāppiyanār, though, here and there as in the case of accent and alapetai, they agree with the author of Vīracoliyam.

For the sake of convenience, I have divided, in this work the period from the Pre-Christian Era to the present day into three:—Ancient, Medieval and Modern, Ancient representing the period extending from the Pre-Christian Era to the 5th century A.D. (i.e.) the end of Sangam Period, Medieval, the period from the 6th century A.D. to the 14th century A.D. and Modern, the period from the 15th century A.D. upto the present day,

I. SPEECH-SOUNDS.

 How speech-sounds are produced:—Tolkāppiyanār says in the sūtra—

Unti mutalā muntu-vaļi töngi-t
Talaiyiņu miţagriņu nenciņu nilaii-p
Pallu m-itaļu nāvu mūkkum
Aņņamn m-uļappaṭa v-eņmugai nilaiyān
Uruppug g-amaiya negippaṭa nāṭi
Ellā v-eļuttun collun kālai-p
Pigappi ŋ-ākkam vēgu-vē g-iyala
Tigappaṭa-t teriyun kāṭci y-āṇa, (Tol. E. 83.)

that air which starts from navel comes out as different speechsounds by passing through the eight parts—chest, neck, head, hard palate, teeth, tongue, lips and nose, and undergoing different modifications therein. This is more or less the translation of the following Kārikās of Pāṇini's Śikṣā:—

Märutastürasi caran mandrañ janayati svaram | Kanthe mädhyandinayugam Täram tärtivasavanam sirsanyam jägatänugam |

Sodīrņo mūrdhnyabhihato vaktram-āpadya mārutaḥ | Varņāñ janayatē

Aşţāu sthānāni varņānām uraķ kaṇṭhaḥ śiras-tathā | Jihvāmūlañca dantāśca nāsikōṣṭhāu ca tālu ca ||

It may be noted here that jihvāmūlam is translated as 'nā' or tongue, while it really means the root of the tongue.

Besides it is said in Pāṇini's Śikṣā that 'h', when it is in company with any one of the five nasals and four semi-vowels, is 'chest-sound' but that, when it is alone, it is guttural.

Cf. 'Hakāram pañcamairyuktam antasthābhiśca saṃyutam | Urasyam tam vijānīyāt kaṇṭhyam āhurasaṃyutam | (P. S. 16.) Though Tolkāppiyaṇār has not stated 'h' among Tamil sounds, he has mentioned the chest as one of the organs of speech probably because the air which finally comes out as speech-sound passes through it.

But the other grammarians from Ilampüranar downwards have not correctly understood the significance of the mention of chest, neck and head. Ilampüranar says in his commentary on the sūtra—

> Mellelut t-ārum pirappi n-ākkam Colliya paļļi nilaiyina v-āyinum Mūkkin vaļi-y-icai yāppura-t tönrum. (Tol. E. 100.)

where it is said that the nasals have for their organ of production, nose also besides their respective organs of production, that the voiceless consonants are produced by talai-vali or the air when it passes through the head, and that the semi-vowels are produced by mitarru-vali or the air when it passes through the neck. This statement of his is probably due to the fact that, of the eight organs mentioned by Tolkappiyanar in Tol. E. 83, all but chest, neck and head have been mentioned as organs of production in sutras 84 to 100. But he does not seem to have noted that neficii or chest mentioned in Tol. E. 83 is left out.

The author of Viracoliyam mentions the same eight organs¹ as Tolkappiyanar, but does not say anything as Ilampuranar does about the places where vallinam, meilinam and itaiyinam are produced. But his commentator Peruntevanar says that the voiceless consonants are produced at the chest, aytam at the head, yowels and semi-vowels at the neck and the nasals at the nose.²

Unti-mutal-elun kārru-p-pirant-ura muñ-ciramum Pantamali-kan ţamu-mūkkum-ur-r-annam pal-l-uţanē Muntum-ital-nā moli-y-uruppāku muyaţci y-in-āl Vantu-nikalu m-eluttenţu-colluvar vāņutalē. (V. C. 6.)

Ivafful, urattai vallinamum, cirattai üytamum, kanţattai uyirum iţaiyinamum, mūkkai mellinamum, poruntum-ena-kkolka. (V. C. 6, Comm.)

8 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

The author of Nannul closely follows Peruntevanar in all respects.¹

The author of Ilakkaṇaviļakkam improves upon Tol. E. 83 by adding that the sound has emanated from udāna which is made to rise by the will of the person.² This clearly shows that he has in his mind the Kārikā—

Ātmā buddhyā sametyārthān mano yunkte vivakṣayā | Manaḥ kāyāgnim āhanti sa prerayati mārutam ||

which precedes 'Mārutastūrasi caran etc.' in Pāṇini's Šikṣā, and agrees with Iļampūraṇar that valliṇam is produced at the head, melliṇam at the nose and iṭaiyiṇam at the neck³ and differs from Naṇnūlār in saying that āytam is produced at the chest⁴ instead of at the head. This is perhaps due to his having known that the Sanskrit 'h' is produced at the chest when it is in company with any one of the five nasals and semi-vowels; but since āytam must invariably be followed by a voiceless consonant, it is more appropriate to say that it is produced in places just near the places of production of the respective voiceless consonants. This point will be dealt with at great length in 1.55.

- Uyir-ulap putāņaņi ņāta m-ucci
 Mitagura mūkkur r-ital-nā-p pal-l-aņa-t
 Tataintu piņņa r-avarratu viņaiyāņ
 Vēru-vē r-eluttoli y-āy-varal pirappē. (I. V. 9.)
- A-v-vali y-āvi y-iţai-miţa r-ucci
 Vanmai menmai-mūk k-icaiyir ronrum. (I. V. 10.)
- Āyta-neñ côcai-yi n-ankān t-iyatuñ
 Căr pelut t-êna-v-un tam-muta l-anaiya. (I. V. 13.)

Niţai-y-uyir muyaţciyi ŋ-ulvali turappa
Elum-aŋu-t tiral-urah kanţa m-ucci
Mūkkuţ ţ-ital-nū-p pat-t-aŋa-t tolitin
Vevvē ţ-eluttoli y-āy-varat piţappē. (Na. 74.)
Avvali,
Āvi y-iţaimai y-iţa-miţa ţ-ākum
Mēvu meŋmai-mūk ku-uram-peţum vaŋmai. (Na. 75.)
Āyta-k k-iţan-talai y-ankā muyaţci
Cârpelut t-ēŋavun tam-muta t-aŋaiya. (Na. 87.)

C. J. Beschi follows Nannūlār in toto¹.

From all this it is evident that the Tamil Grammarians with the exception of Tolkāppiyaṇār have not recognised the true distinction between the ābhyantara-prayatna and the bāhya-prayatna mentioned by Pāṇini and other Sanskrit Grammarians. They have not also recognised that the classification of vowels, explosives, semi-vowels and fricatives is due to their distinction in ābhyantara-prayatna and that the classification into voiceless and voiced is due to the difference in the condition of the vocal chords and certain concomitant factors which come under bāhya-prayatna².

It may be useful to note in this connection that the tension of the vocal chords and the accompanying vibration and musical clang or voice correspond to the bāhya-prayatnas of the voiced consonants, viz., saṃvāra, nāda and ghōṣa, while the flaccid condition of the vocal chords and the accompanying non-vibration and breath correspond to the bāhya-prayatnas of the voiceless consonants, viz., vivāra, śvāsa and aghōṣa.

At the end of the third section in Eluttatikāram, Tolkāppiyaṇār states in two sūtras—

Ellä v-eluttum velippala-k kilantu
Colliya palli y-elutaru valiyir
Pirappotu vituvali y-uralcci vära-t
Takattelu vali-y-icai y-arirapa näti
Alapir köta l-antanar maraitte. (Tol. E. 102.)
A&tiva nuvalä t-eluntu-purat t-icaikku
Meyteri vali-y-icai y-alavu-nuvan ricine.

(ibid. 103.)

that the theory of speech-sounds and modifications which sound undergoes within the body may be learnt from the scriptures of

^{1.} T. V. 3. Comm.

Samvitē kanthē nādah kriyatē. (Tai. P. II, 4.)
Vivitē śvāsah. (Tai. P. II, 5.)

 Kanthasya khē vivitē samvitē vā āpadyatē śvāsatām nādatām vā. (R. V. P. 13, 1.)

10 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

the Brahmins and that he has dealt with here only the articulated speech-sounds that come out of the mouth. Here it is evident that he refers to the four phases of speech-sound, parā, paśyantī, madhyamā and vaikharī described in Sanskrit Grammar, parā, being that phase of the śabda-brahman, the undifferentiated primordial sound manifested at mālādhāra or sacral plexus, paśyantī being that phase which is manifested at the navel and which is cognisible to Yōgins, madhyamā being that phase which is manifested at the heart and vaikharī being that phase which is manifested out of the vocal organs as the articulated sound. These four phases are clearly suggested by the following Rk mentioned by Patañjali in the first āhnika of his Mahābhāṣya:—

Catvāri vākparimitā padāni Tāni vidur brāhmaņā yē manīşiņah | Guhā trīņi nihitā nēngayanti Turīyam vācō manusyā vadanti ||

(M. B. i. 3. 24 and 25.)

Hence the three sūtras, Tol. E. 83, 102 and 103 clearly show that Tolkāppiyanār had studied Sanskrit Śikṣā, Prātiśākhyas and grammar, and had adopted in his work those points which would suit Tamil Language.

- 1.2. Classification:—Speech-sounds are first classified into primary and secondary in almost all the treatises on Tamil Grammar. They are respectively called mutal-elutivi and cār-pelutivi by Nannūlār and his successors. The name cār-pelutivi may have been suggested to them by the expression 'cārntu-varan marapil' in the first sūtra in Eluttatikāram of Tolkāppiyam.
- 1.21. Primary sounds: 1.211. Definition:-Primary sounds are those which have only one definite place of production in vocal organs for each of them. That this is the idea of

Uyiru m-uţampum-ā muppatu mutalē, (Na. 59.)

Uyirmey äytam uyiralapu orralapu
 A∴ kiya i-u ai-au ma∴ kāŋ
 Taṇi-nilai pattuñ cărpelut t-ākum. (Na. 60.)
 Moli-k-kä raṇam-ā nāta-kā riya-v-oli
 Eluttatu mutal-cār p-eṇa-v-iru vakaittē. (I. V. 3.)

Tolkāppiyaṇār is inferred from his statement that secondary sounds are found only in the company of primary sounds and cannot have a separate place of production,¹

1.212. Number of primary sounds:—The primary sounds are, in the opinion of Tolkäppiyanär, thirty² in number consisting of 12 vowels³ and 18 consonants⁴. The author of Viracoliyam mentions āytam between vowels and consonants and thence according to him the primary sounds seem to be thirty-one.⁵ The author of Nēminātam follows him in this point.⁶ But all the other grammarians repeat the opinion of Tolkāppiyanār.

It seems to me that the authors of Viracoliyam and Neminatam have gone wrong in having included aytam among primary sounds, since its pronunciation varies according to the consonant that succeeds it. This point will be dealt with at greater length in 1.55.

1.213. Classification of primary sounds:—Primary sounds are classified into vowels and consonants, of which the vowels are produced by opening the mouth, which is seen from the

- Cărntu varin -allatu tamakkiyal-pila-v-eŋa-t Terntu-veli-p paţutta v-eŋai mūŋrun Tattañ cărpir pirappoţu civaŋi Otta kāţciyir rammiyal p-iyalum. (Tol. E. 101.)
- Eluttena-p-poţupa
 Akara-mutal
 Nakara v-iruvāy muppa ∴ tenpa
 Cürntu-varan marapin münralan kataivē. (ibid. 1.)
- Aukāra v-iruvāy-p Paņņī r-eļuttu m-uyir-eņa moļipa. (ibid. 8.)
- Nakara v-iţuvāy-p Patiņen n-eluttu mey-y-ena molipa. (ibid. 9.)
- Arinta-v-eluttam-mun panniranţāvi-ka l-ān-kam-mun Piranta-patineţţu mey-naţu-v-āytam peyarttiţai-y-ām Murintana-yam-muta l-āyu isañana namana-v-enru Cerintana-mellinañ ceppāta-vallinan temoliye, (V. C. 1.)

expression 'ankāntū iyalum' in Tol. E. 85 and avarroranna in Tol. E. 86, etc. The vowels and the consonants will be dealt with in detail after secondary sounds are defined and numbered (i.e.) in 1.3 and 1.4.

1.22. Secondary sounds: 1.221. Definition:—Secondary sounds are those which depend for their pronunciation upon the preceding or succeeding consonants. This is evident from Tolkäppiyanär's statement 'cārntú varin allatú tamakkú iyalpila' in Tol. E. 101.

But Nannular does not seem to have understood the full significance of this definition of Tolkappiyanar. He seems to have mistaken kurriyal-ikaram and kurriyal-ukaram for 'i' and 'u' shortened to half a matra each. According to Tolkappiyanar the places of production of kurriyalikaram and kurriyal-ukaram are not always the same as those for 'i' and 'u', but change according to the preceding consonant.

Mayilainātar says that cārpeļuttu is that which is other than mutal-elettu and which is used along with another sound.\(^1\) An old commentator on Nannūl says that cārpeļuttu is one which has undergone modification by one part of it combining with another part or by being preceded or succeeded by another sound.\(^2\)

The author of Ilakkaṇa-vilakkam agrees with Mayilainātar.

Cańkara-namaccivāyar says that cārpeluttu is that which is used only in combination as vowel-consonant, which comes in company of mutal-eluttu as āytam or mutal-eluttu modified as the rest. He adds that it may also be defined as a sound found only in words.³

Civañana-munivar, on the other hand, agrees with Tolkappiyanar and elaborately criticises in his Tolkappiya-mutarcuttira-

Mutaleļuttān-tanmai avarrirk-inmaivānum, cārpir-röngutalānum ippattum cārpākavē kollavēntum-enpatū. (Na. 59. M.)

Tammoţu tăm cărntum, iţam cărntum, paŢŢukkōţû cărntum, vikārattāl varutalin. (Na. p. 40- f.n.)

Uyirmey uyirum meyyum kūţi-p-pirattalāņum, āytam . . . avarr-iţaiyē cārntu-varutalāņum ēņaiya tattamutaleluttin-riripu

virutti, the definition given by the commentators of Nannul and the author of Hakkana-vilakkam.

1.222. Number of secondary sounds:—The secondary sounds are, in the opinion of Tolkāppiyaṇār, three in number consisting of kuṛṛiyal-ikaram (roughly translated as shortened 'i'), kuṛṛiyal-ukaram (roughly translated as shortened 'u'), and āylam¹, and each of them has half a mātrā for its quantity.² Ilam-pūraṇar mentions under Tol. E. 1, that they are 226 in number consisting of kuṛṛiyal-ikaram, kuṛṛiyal-ukaram and āylam, 7 uyir-alapeļai and 216 vowel-consonants. According to the author of Vīracōliyam they are 11 in number consisting of 7 alapeṭai (one corresponding to each of 7 long vowels), kuṛṛiyal-ikaram, kuṛṛiyal-ukaram, shortened 'ai' and shortened 'au'.³ The author of Nēminātam mentions both in his text and commentary 244 secondary sounds consisting of 7 uyir-alapeṭai, kuṛṛiyal-ikaram, kuṛṛiyal-ukaram, shortened 'ai', shortened 'au'

vikārattār pirattalānum cārpeļuttāyinavāka-k-koļka . . . orumoļiyai-c-cārntu varutalē tamakk-ilakkaņam-ākavuţaimaiyir cārpeļuttāyina-v-ena-k-k**ō**ţalum-ām-enka.

(Na. 60. C.)

1. Avaitām,

Kurriya l-ikaram kurriya l-ukaram Aytam-enra Munnar hulliya melutik nanna (Tol

Muppar pulliyu m-eluted r-anna. (Tol. E. 2.)

- Avviya-nilaiyu m-ēņai mūņṛē. (ibid. 12.)
- 3. Iruti-mey-nīnkiya v-īrārit-aintu kurineţit-ēl
 Peruvariyāneţu nīrmai-y-alapu piņainta-varkkam
 Aruvaru-vallorru mellor rum-ām-vanmai mēl-ukaram
 Uruvatu-naiyum toţarmoli-p-pinnu netir-pinnumē, (V. C. 2.)
 Akaram-vakaratti nōţiyaint-auvām yakarattinōţū
 Akaram-iyaintaiya tākum ā ē ō viņā-v-antam-ām
 Ekara-okara-mey yir-pulli-mēvum a-i-u-c-cuṭṭām
 Ikaran-kuruki varun-kurtukaram-pin ya-v-varinē, (ibid. 3.)
 Kurteluttonron r-arai-y-ākum-ai-au v-ironţuneţil
 Orreluttāytam i-u-v-arai-mūnrola p-ōnkuyirmey
 Marteluttanruyir māttirai-y-ō-peru mannukinra
 Orreluttinpin n-uyir-varin-ēru m-oli-vilaivē, (ibid. 5.)

216 vowel-consonants (ka, kā, ki, etc.), 6 shortened voiceless consonants, 6 nasals, and the shortened 'y', 'l', 'v', 'l' and &1.

Nannūlār mentions 369 secondary sounds consisting of 216 vowel-consonants, 8 murrāytam, 21 nyir-aļapētai. 42 orraļapētai, 37 kurriyal-ikaram, 36 kurriyal-ukaram, 3 shortened 'ai', 1 shortened 'au', 3 shortened 'm' and 2 shortened āytam. He explains them thus:—Since there are 12 vowels and 18 consonants, the number of vowel-consonants is $18 \times 12 = 216.3$ Since there are 6 voiceless consonants which can follow āytam, since āytam is substituted in sandhi for consonants as in av + katiya = akkatiya and since it is inserted in certain words for the sake of metre as in ceyva&tû (for ceyvatû), the number of murrāytam is 6 + 2 = 8.4 Since aļapētai can come at the beginning, the middle and the end of words and since there are seven long vowels, the number of uyir-aļapētai is $7 \times 3 = 215$.

- Önkuyirka ţ-arrinmā l-ēri y-uyirmey-y-āy
 Ānhiru nāggorupat tāgākum—pānhuţaiya
 Valloggu melloggu varkka m-aţapeţaikaţ
 Colloggi nātţa-t takum. (N. N. E. 3.)
 Toţarneţir kāţ-vanmai mēl-ukaram ya-p-piy
 Paţaiya varum-ikar m-angi—maţa-nallāy
 Mummai-y-iţat t-ai-y-au-v-uh kungumun norgunţēl
 Cemmai-y-uyi r-ēruā cerintů. (ibid. 4.)
- Uyirmey y-iraţţu-nūr reţţuya r-āytam
 Eţţuyi r-aţapeţu mūnror r-aţapeţai
 Ārē ţa∴ ku m-immup paŋēţ
 Ukara m-ārā r-aikān mūnrē
 Aukā n-onrē ma∴ kān mūnrē
 Āyta m-iranţoţu cārpeţut t-uru-viri
 Onroli munnūr reţupā n-enpa. (Na. 61.)
- Pulli-vit tav-v-otu mun-n-uru v-āki-y-um Ēnai y-uyir ā ţuruvu tirintum Uyir-ala vāy-atan vaţivolit tiruvayin Peyaroţu m-oţţu-mun n-āy-varu m-uyirmey. (ibid. 89.)
- Kuriyatan munna r-āyta-p-pulli . Uyirotu puņarnta-val lāran micaittē. (ibid. 90.)
- Icai-keţin moli-muta l-iţai-kaţai nilai-neţil
 Alapelu m-avarravar r-iŋa-k-kuril kuri-y-ă. (ibid. 91.)

Since the 11 sounds n, n, n, n, m, n, y, l, v, l and & can come as orralapetai after one short vowel or two short vowels, in the middle of words in the case of all and at the end in the case of all except &, the number of orralabetai is $11 \times 4 - 2 = 42^{1}$. Since kurriyal-ikaram takes the place of kurriyal-ukaram when the latter is followed by 'y' in sandhi and there are 36 kurriyalukaram and the 'i' in the particle 'miya' in such words as kënmiya is kurriyal-ikaram, its number is 36+1=372. Since kurriyal-ukaram may be preceded by one of the 7 long vowels alone, two or more vowels except 'au' (which are therefore 11 in number), dytam, 6 voiceless consonants, 6 nasals and all semivowels except 'v' (which are therefore 5 in number), its number is $7+11+1+6+6+5=36^3$. Since aikāra-k-kurukkam may be found at the beginning, the middle and the end of words, its number is 34. Since aukāra-k-kurukkam can be had only at the beginning of words, its number is only 15. Since makara-kkurukkam can be had after n and n and before v, as in marunin, bonin, tarum-valavan, its number is 36. Since aytam may be substituted for l or l in sandhi, as in al+tinai=a&rinai and mul+tītu-muafītu and its mātrā is 1 (according to him), the number of ayta-k-kurukkam is 27.

Naccinārkkiniyar repeats under Tol. E. 1 the opinion of Ilampūraņar,

The author of Ilakkana-vilakkam mentions that the secondary sounds are 240 in number consisting of kurriyal-ikaram, kurriyal-

Na-ña-na na-ma-na va-ya-la-la v-āytam Alapān kuril-inai kurir-kil-itai-kotai Mikalē y-avarrin kuri-y-ām vērē. (Ibid. 92.)

Yakaram vara-k-kura l-u-t-tiri y-ikaramum Acai-c-col miyā-v-i n-ikaram-un kuriya. (Ibid. 93.)

Neţilō ţ-āyta m-uyir-vali meli-y-iţai
 Toţar-moli y-iţuti vanmai-y-ū r-ukaram
 A∴kum piramēl totara-v-um perum-ē. (Ibid 94.)

^{+ &}amp; 5. Tar-cut t-alapoli y-ai-m-mū vali-y-um Nai-y-u m-au-v-u mutal-ar rūkum. (Ibid. 95.)

Na-ŋa-muŋŋum va∴ kāŋ micaiyu-ma-k kurukum. (Ibid. 96.)

^{7.} La-la-v-īr r-iyaipiņā m-āyta m-a : kum. (Ibid. 97.)

ukaram, āytam, 216 uyirmey, 7 uyir-aļapeţai, 11 orralapeṭai, shortened 'ai' and shortened 'au' and makara-k-kurukkam and condemns Nannūlār and says that āytam never reduces itself to \(\frac{1}{4}\) of a mātrā, and that other sounds like uyir-aļapeṭai, etc., except uyir-mey remain the same, whether they stand at the beginning, the middle or the end of words and that therefore the number 369 mentioned by Nannūlār cannot stand¹.

Civañaṇa-muṇivar, on the other hand, says that there is no purpose served by taking uyirmey as cārpeļuttū, that uyiraļapeṭai is only a short vowel added to the previous long vowel to lengthen its mātrā, that oṛṛaḷapeṭai is only a consonant that is added for the sake of lengthening the mātrā, and shortened 'ai' shortened 'au' and makara-k-kurukkam are produced at the same part of the vocal organs as 'ai', 'au' and 'm' respectively, but vary only in their quantity. Besides one cannot say that kurṛiyal-ikaram and kurṛiyal-ukaram are shortened 'i' and shortened 'u' in the same way as shortened 'ai' and shortened 'au'. For, had it been the opinion of Tolkāppiyaṇār, he would have designated them as kurṛikaram and kurṛukaram and not as kurriyal-ikaram and kurṛiyal-ukaram, and would not have indicated a separate symbol for them as he now does in Tol, E. 2.2

I totally agree with Civañaṇa-muṇivar. I may add that the definition given to cārpeļuttů by the commentators on Naṇṇūl to include vowel-consonants does not at all hold good. (Cf. 1.221. supra.) They say 'tammoṭù tām cārntatù'. In the vowel-consonant 'ka', we may say that 'k' is in the company

Ayata-k-kurukkam-onru inrenavum...uyirmey-y-olittü enaiyav-elläm itaverrumaiyän-anri eluttu-verrumaiyän annanam palkämaiyir cärpeluttu munnürrarupattonpatäm enral nirampätü.

^{2.} Iņi immūngumē-y-angi uyirmey mutaliyavargaiyun cārpeluttenpārum uļarālā v-enin;—...uyir-mey enpatanai...orgumainayam-pargi ongū enpatanāl oru payan-inmaiyānum...alapeţai
cārpeluttena vērākāmai munnar-k-kāţţappaţţatākalānum, aikāra-kkugukka mutaliyana...vēreluttenā-p-paţā-v-ākalānum vaṭanūlārum..
..uyir-mey, uyir-alapeţai, aikāra-k-kugukkam mutaliya eluttukkaļai-ccigitū tirintamai-pargi vēreluttena yānţun colţāmaiyānum atu poruntātu
ena magukka. (T. M. V. 29—30).

of 'a' or 'a' is in the company of 'k'. Hence either of the two may be said to be carpeluttie with respect to the other. How can the whole be called carpeluttu? Besides it may be noted here that in many places the sounds 'ka', 'ca', 'ta', etc. are used to represent only the consonantal sound 'k', 'c', 't', etc. to enable the hearer to understand what consonant is pronounced and Tolkappiyanar himself says so in the sutra Meyyi n-iyakka m-akaramoţû civanum. E. 46. He has also used the symbols ' ka' (s), 'ca' (s), etc. to represent 'k' (s), 'c' (s), etc.1; besides for the purpose of representing the sounds 'kā', 'ki', 'ki', etc., the symbols denoting 'a', 'i', 'i' etc. are added to the symbol denoting 'ka' and not to the symbol denoting 'k'. These three points, it seems to me, may have led the author of Něminātam, Nannülär and others to mistake uvirmey for a unitary sound. As regards alapetai and shortened i ai Tolkappiyanar himself has mentioned them in the sutras.

> Mūvaļa p-icaitta l-ōr-eļut t-iņrē. (Tol. E. 5.) Nīṭṭam vēṇṭi ŋ-a-v-v-aļa p-uṭaiya Kūṭṭi y-eļūuta l-eṇmaṇār pulavar. (ibid. 6.

and

Ör-aļa p-āku m-iţaņumā r-uņţē Tērun kālai moli-vayi n-āņa. (ibid. 57.)

but has not included them among secondary sounds.

1.223. Classification of secondary sounds:—The secondary sounds are not classified by Tolkappiyanar either as vowels or as consonants, or as neither. But according to Nannular and the later grammarians except Civañana-munivar they may be classified into vowel secondary sounds, consonant secondary sounds and secondary sounds that are neither. This point will be dealt with at greater length in 1.348, 1.3481, 1.3482, 1.3483, 1.3484, 1.47 & 1.5.

Cf. Vallelut t-en pa ka-ca-ța ta-pa-ța. (Tol. E. 19.)
 Mellelut t-en pa na-na-na na-ma-na. (Ibid. 20.)
 Ițai-y-elut t-en pa ya-ra-la va-la-la. (Ibid. 21.)

18 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

1.3. VOWELS: 1.31. CLASSIFICATION.

1.311. Ancient period:—(Tolkāppiyanār says that) there are 12 vowels from 'a' to 'au' which may be classified thus:

Secondary vowels; i (shortened i) and ii (shortened u).²

- 1.312. Medieval period:—The primary vowels are the same as those in the ancient period; but the secondary vowels are 'i', 'ii', 'ai' (shortened ai) and 'aii' (shortened au) and uyiraļapeţai, āa. īi, ūu, ēe, aii, ŏo and auu.
- 1,313. Modern period:—According to llakkaṇa-vilakkam and Toṇṇūl-vilakkam the primary vowels are the same as those of the ancient period and the secondary ones as those of the medieval period; but according to Civañāṇa-muṇivar's Tolkāppiya-mutarcūttira-virutti both the primary and the secondary vowels are the same as those of the ancient period.

N.B .- The parallelism between

' Aukāra v-iruvāy-p pannīr-cļuttum uyir-eņa moļipa', (Tol. E. 8.)

and

Akārādyāķ svarā jūcyāķ
 aukārāntāķ caturdaśa'. (B. N. p. 170, 8.)

is worth noting; but we cannot say definitely whether the extant text of Nāṭya Śāstra is anterior or posterior to Tolkāppiyam.

Akara ikara m-aikāra m-ākum. (Tol. K. 54.) Akara ukara m-aukāra m-ākum. (Ibid. 55.)

He does not mention the name diphthongs, but suggests it in the sūtras

He does not mention 'i' and 'i' as vowels, though, for practical purposes, they may be taken as such.

- 1.32. Quantity of vowels:—Short vowels have one mātrā,¹ long vowels and diphthongs two² and secondary vowels half³. The shortened 'ai' and the shortened 'au' have one mātrā according to Tolkāppiyaṇār⁴ and one and a half according to Peruntēvaṇār⁵ and Kuṇavīra-paṇṭitar⁶; but only one mātrā according to Naṇṇūlār² and the later grammarians.⁸
- 1.33. Quality of vowels:—All vowels are open sounds, as is seen from the statement 'ankäntiyalum' in the sūtra

'Avarrul A ā ā-y-iraņ ţ-aṅkāṇtiyalum' (Tol. E. ⁸6) and 'avarrōraṇṇa' in the sūtra, I-ī e-ē ai-y-eṇa v-icaikkum A-p-pā l-aintu m-avarrō r-aṇṇa.

Avaitām,

An-pan mutanā viļimp-ura l-utaiya.' (ibid. 86.) and 'italkuvintiyalum' in the sūtra

1. Avarral Aiu Eo enna m-appa l-aintum Orala p-icaikkuit kurrelut t-enpa. (Tol. E. 3.) 2. A I i \bar{E} aiO au ennu m-appa l-elum Īraļa p-icaikku nettelut t-enpa. (Ibid. 4.) Avviya nilaiyu m-enai münre. (Ibid. 12.) Oraļa pāku m-itanum-ā r-untē Terun kalai molivayi n-ana. (Ibid. 57.) Aikāra aukāra-k kurukkankaļ oprarai māttirai perum. (V. C. 5 Comm.) Kurinetilka Jongirantu.... Ai-y-au v-alaton rarai. (N. N. E. 5.) 7. Münyu uyiralapu irantām netil onre Kurilotu ai au-k kurukkam orrolapu(Na. 99.) 8. Netil-iran tai-y-au-k kurukkan kuril-onru

.....(I. V. 24.)

'U-ū o-ō au-v-eṇa v-icaikkum

A-p-pū l-aintu m-italkuvin t-iyalum.' (ibid. 87.)

All the later grammarians agree with Tolkāppiyaṇār in this point.

A and \bar{a} are guttural vowels¹ i, \bar{i} , e, \bar{e} and ai are palatal² and u, \bar{u} , o, \bar{o} and au are labial.³. The minute distinction as regards the place of production of i or \bar{i} , e or \bar{e} and ai, and of u or \bar{u} , o or \bar{o} and au is not clearly expressed, but it is mentioned that their distinction is only small.⁴ & ⁵ The places of production of i and u are modified, according to Tolkäppiyam, by the consonant in whose company they are.⁶ It seems to me that it is the consonant that precedes them that modifies their places of production; for instance in the words $n\bar{a}kkiy\bar{a}t\dot{u}$ ($n\bar{a}kk\dot{u}+y\bar{a}t\dot{u}$) and $tappiy\bar{a}t\dot{u}$ ($tapp\dot{u}+y\bar{a}t\dot{u}$), i is respectively guttural and labial. Simlarly in the words $n\bar{a}kk\dot{u}$, $tacc\dot{u}$, $katt\dot{u}$, $matt\dot{u}$ and $tapp\dot{u}$ \dot{u} is respectively guttural, palatal, alveolar or cerebral, dental and

- Avarrul A ā āyiran t-ahkān tiyalum. (Tol. E. 85.)
- Ii ee ai-y-eŋa v-icaikkum
 Appā l-aintu m-avarrō r-aŋŋa
 Avaitām
 Aŋpaŋ mutaŋā viļimpura l-uţaiya. (Ibid. 86.)
- U @ o @ au-v-eŋa v-icaikkum Appā l-aintu m-ital-kuvin t-iyalum. (Ibid. 87.)
- 4. Tattan tiripe ciriya v-enpa (Ibid. 88.)
- 5. This is perhaps after the model of Prātiśākhyas. For instance in Śaunakaprātiśākhya it is said that e, 2nd varga, i & i āi, y & ś are palatals. Cf. Tālavyavēkāra cakāravargā vikārāikārāuyakārah śakāraḥ (R. V. P. i, 19). Similarly u, ū, ō, āu, 5th varga, v & upadhmānīya are said as labials. (Cf. R. V. P. I. 20.)
 - Cārntu-vari n-allatu tamakkiyal pila-v-ena-t Tērntu-veļi p paţutta v-ĕnai mūngum Tattañ cārpig pigappoţu civani Otta kāţciyig gam-m-iyal p-iyalum. (Tol. E. 101.)

labial. But the authors of Nannūl and Ilakkaņa-viļakkam¹ say that they (i and ii) respectively agree with 'i' and 'u' in the place of production. Civañāṇa-muṇivar on the other hand agrees with Tolkāppiyaṇār² and he seems to be correct.

1.34. Treatment of each vowel sound.

1.341. 'A': 1.3411. Dr. Caldwell says in p. 133 "In Tamil 'a' is the heaviest of all the simple vowels and therefore the most liable to change. It evinces a tendency to be weakened into 'e' (Cf. Skt. balam—strength, with Tamil belam: Skt. japa—prayer, with Tamil śebam. See also the pronoun of the first person)".

It seems that the change of 'a' to 'e' in the above tadbhava words is not due so much to the heaviness of 'a' as to the peculiar way in which 'g', 'j', 'd', 'd' and 'b', the third plosive consonant of each varga in Sanskrit is pronounced. They are pronounced as 'gɔ', 'jɔ' 'dɔ', 'dɔ' and 'bɔ'. When the Tamilians first learnt these sounds which were new to them, they had a tendency to write belam for balam though later on they began to adopt both the forms palam and pelam. This may be clearly seen from the following table:

Sanskrit Tamil
Gaṅgātīra keṅkātīram³
Garuḍa keluḷaṇ⁴
Gatāyus ketāyu⁵

- Cărpelut tenavun tammuta l-anaiya, (Na. 87.)
 Cărpelut tenavun tammuta l-anaiya, (I. V. 13.)
- Iţamum parrukköţum kurriyal-ikarak kurriyal-ukarankanirr arku-c cărpeŋavē-y-aŋri-k kurukiyicaittarku-k kāranamākāeŋakkoļka. (T. M. V. p. 28.)
- Kenkü-tirattu-t-tēcam. (P. K. 33, 220.)
 (The country on the banks of the Ganges.)
- Kelulano nanta negnā. (C. C. 1926.)
 (Whether Nanda is Garuḍa.)
- 5 Camar purintavan-rānum ketāyu v-āyinān. (V. P. 405, 37.) (Even he who engaged himself in battle lost his life.)

Sanskrit Tamil
Gaja kecam¹
Japa cepam²
Bahuvrihi vekuviriyan³.

But at the same time they use the same sounds without change also.

Sanskrit Tamil
Gagana kakayam⁴
Gaṅgā kaṅkai⁵
Gaṇa kacam⁶.

The same change does not generally take place when 'a' is preceded in Sanskrit by kh or gh, ch or jh, dh, ph or bh.

Sanskrit Tamil
Khadyöta kaccötam²
Ghaṭa kaṭam²
Chala calam³
Jhaṭiti caṭiti¹²

- Keca turaka mutalüna caturankam. (Tä. 33, 6.)
 (The four limbs consisting of elephants, horses, etc.)
- Cepan-tavan-tāṇam. (C. P. 319, 2.)
 (Meditation, penance and gifts.)
- Vekuviriyan. (Pi. 24.)
 (Possessive compound.)
- Kakana-vänarkal (Ka. P. i. 493, 13.)
 (Residents of celestial regions.)
- Kankai kankai y-cura vācakattātē. (P. A. T. 80, 1.)
 (With the words of the Ganges, the Ganges.)
- Kaca-rata-turaka-mū-k-kaţal. (Kampar, B. 149, 22.)
 (The vast sea of elephants, chariots and horses.)
- Kaccētam eŋṛū karuti. (Ka. P. i. 569, 43.)
 (Having taken it to be glow-worm.)
- Kaṭamuṇi-cēṛaiōṭum. (Ka. P. i. 133, 65.)
 (With the arrival of the pot-sage Agastya.)
- Cala-p-paţaiyān iravir rākkiyat-ellām. (Pari. 43, 57.)
 (All the on-slaughts of the Indian Cupid at nights.)
- Cațiti vi Intû. (C. P. 84, 20.) (Having fallen soon.)

Sanskrit	Tamil
Dharani	tarani1
Phala	palam2
Bhaya	payam3.

Hence we may safely infer that 'a' generally changes to 'a' when it is preceded by the third consonant of each varga and not by the second or the fourth. Besides such a change is not seen in pure Tamil words.

1.3412. Dr. Caldwell further observes that "'a' has almost entirely disappeared from the end of nouns in Tamil and has been succeeded by 'u' or 'ei'. Where final 'a' changes into 'ei' in Tamil, it generally changes into 'e' in Canarese.... In Telugu and especially in Malayāļam, this vowel is less subject to changes".

No doubt the nouns that end in 'a' in Tamil are rare. The few cases where they end in 'a' are palla, pala, cila, ulla, illa, etc. But whether the 'a' that stood at the end of words was changed to 'u' or 'ci' deserves careful examination. Because Telugu and Malayalam have 'a' at the end where Tamil has 'ai' and Canarese 'c', as is seen from the following table, he seems to conclude that 'a' was the final sound at the end of such words in the parent Dravidian Language.

Tamil	Telugu	Malayāļam	Canarese
katai	kada	kada	kade
karai	kara	kara	kare
kalai		kala	kale
karai	kara	kara	kare

- Tarani-mēr rilakam-annāy. (C. C. 1178.)
 (You are like a tilka on earth.)
- Pala-v-in palam. (P. N. 109, 5.)

(Jack-fruit)

- Payattinātuñ cella. (T. T. P. 206, 21.)
 (To go with fear.)
- 4. Cf. Palla pala-cila v-č**n**num poyarum

 Ulla v-illa v-c**nn**um poyarum

 (Tol. Col. 168.)

But considering the statement of Dr. Caldwell, that "Tamil being probably the earliest cultivated of all the Dravidian idioms. the most copious, and that which contains the largest portion and the richest variety of indubitably ancient forms, it is deservedly placed at the head of the list" (C. D. G. p. 6,), and considering the fact that words ending in 'ai' are found in Tolkāppiyam (Cf. avai-y-ivai y-ena varūum peyarum...Tol, Col. 167) and that it is more natural for 'ai' to be lightened to 'e' (as is found even now in spoken Tamil yanai as yane, karai as kare, etc.) and later to 'a' as Tolkappiyanar says that 'ai' may be changed to 'ay'1, the 'y' of which may afterwards be dropped, is it not more reasonable to assume that the parent Dravidian language had 'ai' at the end of such words instead of 'a'? But in the medieval period 'a' before the palatal explosives 'c' and ' π ' and semi-vowel 'y' in the middle of words had a tendency to change to 'ai' mostly in literary works perhaps by the influence of prosody. Cf. araican for aracan in kali-araisan (Ep. I, Vol. XVII. Pt. VII, V. G. line 90), maincu for mancu, maiyal for mayal, etc.2. Then through analogy 'ai' was substituted for 'a' even before non-palatal sounds. Cf. palaimai, ilaimai, for palamai and ilamai respectively. Hence Dr. Caldwell's statement that 'a' is most liable to change may apply to a certain extent only in the medieval period and in the modern period. Cf. caritai for Skt. carita.

1.3413. Besides it may be interesting to note that the Tamil pronunciation of 'a' may have influenced the South Indians to pronounce the Sanskrit 'a' at the end of words like pašya, vada, gaccha, etc. as an open vowel though it is a close one according to P. A. 8.4.68 and M.B.i.15.14 and it is still pronounced in North India as such.

1.3411. ' \tilde{A} ': 1.34111. The statement of Dr. Caldwell that ' \tilde{a} ' is formed in Tamil by the coalescence of two short

Akara-t t-impar yakara-p pulliyum
 Ai-y-e netuñ-cinai mey-pera-t tōnrum. (Tol. E. 56.)

^{2.} A ai mutal-itas y-okkuñ ca-ña-ya-mun. (Na. 123.)

a's¹ is quite against the genius of the Tamil language. This is one of the points where Tamil differs generally from Sanskrit. If two short a's come together in Tamil as pala+aram, an intervocalic 'v' is generally inserted between them as pala-v-aram and they can never coalesce into 'ā'.

1.34112. Again he says that 'ā' becomes poetically 'ō'?. This existed even in the ancient period and is supported by Tolkāppiyam³. But he says that viņņavar becomes viṇṇōr. This need not be. A personal noun viṇṇār may be formed by adding the plural suffix 'ār'¹¹ to the noun viṇ and 'ō' may be substituted for 'ā'⁵ in the same way as the final 'a' in Sanskrit is pronounced as 'o' by Bengalis at the present day. Cí. villōn for villān and nallōr for nallār in the stanza.

villön kālana kalalē...nallör yār kol-aļiyar tāmē. (Ku. T. 7.)

1.34113. He then says that final 'ā' of Sanskrit feminine abstracts becomes 'ai' in Tamil. This may be accepted as a general rule though modern writers do not strictly adhere to it.6

1.342. 'I'. This is inserted when Sanskrit words having conjunct consonants, one of which is generally 'y', 'r' or 'l', are Tamilised. Cf. pattiyam, ilakkiyam, vāttiyam pattiram, cukkilam for Skt. pathya, lakşya, vādya, patra and śukla?. In ancient period this is substituted for a final 'y'. Cf. nāi (sa@) for nāy8.

Ā.v-ð v-ākum peyarum-ā r-uļavē
 Ā.y-iţa ŋ-arital ceyyul [-u]ţē. (Tol. Col. 195.)

 Ar är pa-ena varüu müngum Pallör marunkir paţarkkai-c collê. (†bid. 206.)

 Pāl-ari marapi y-ammū v-īrrum Ā-v-ð v-ākuñ ceyyu [-uliĕ. (Ibid. 211.)

 Cf. anukampam for Skt. anukampā in 'anukampam....uţas yarê cirantār. (Civa. pala. 39.)

(Great are they who have compassion.)

^{1. &}amp; 2. C. D. G. 133.

Küţţeluttin-pin ya-ra-la-k-kaţonriţir küţţiţaiyē Oţţeluttāka-p perum-or-ikāram....(V. Tat. 8.)

^{8.} Ikara yakara m-iruti viravum. (Tol. E. 58.)

1,3421. ' \tilde{I} '. The final ' \tilde{i} ' in $n\tilde{i}$ is shortened when case-suffixes are added to it¹.

1.343. 'U'. Dr. Caldwell says that "u is of all vowels the weakest and lightest and is largely used especially at the end of words for euphonic purposes or as a help to enunciation. The Tamil rule with regard to the addition of 'u' to words which end in a consonant is that in words which end in any hard or surd consonant, viz., k, ch, t, t or p, or in the hard rough r which is peculiar to these languages, the hard consonant shall be followed by 'u' in consequence of its being impossible for Tamilian organs of speech to pronounce those letters without the help of a succeeding vowel. In most instances this enunciative 'u' is not merely short but so very short that its quantity is determined by grammarians to be equal only to a fourth of the quantity of a long vowel.... It often happens (though it is not an invariable rule) that the final surd to which enunciative 'u' has been appended, is doubled apparently for the purpose of furnishing a fulcrum for the support of the appended vowel. Thus the Sanskrit vāk becomes vākku. The rule is further extended in Tamil so as to apply to the final consonants of syllables as well as to those of words. If a syllable, though in the middle of a word, terminates in one of the hard consonants above mentioned and if the initial consonant of the succeeding syllable is one which cannot be assimilated to it, the final consonant is doubled and 'u' is affixed. Thus Skt. advaita becomes in Tamil attuvaida".

Here three points are to be noted:—(1) The rule stated above holds good only in the case of tadbhava words (i.e.) words tamilised from Sanskrit; for no pure Tamil word can have according to the Tamil grammarians, k, c, t, t, p or r as the final member². (2) The 'u' that is added at the end of such words

Nī-y-e y-oru-peyar neţu-mutal kurukum Āvayi n-akara m-orrā kum-m-z. (Ibid. 180.)

Na-na-na-ma na-ya-ra-la va-la-la- v-ennum Ap-pati n-onyè pulli y-iyuti. (Ibid. 78.)

have, in the opinion of the Tamil grammarians, for their quantity one mātrā1 and not half a mātrā as stated by Dr. Caldwell; for, this 'u' does not play the same part in sandhi as 'ii' (kurrival-ukaram) at the end of pure Tamil words:-vākku (tadbhava of vāk)+inkē becomes vākku-v-inkē; while nākkû (pure Tamil word) + inkē becomes nākkinkē, the intervocalic 'v' being inserted in the former case and 'ii' being dropped in the latter case2. (3) The addition of 'u' at the end of a syllable under the conditions stated above has certain limitations. It cannot hold good where there are two or more conjunct consonants. For instance, the Sanskrit word plutākṣara is tamilised into bulutākkaram and not pulutākkuşaram, Hence the same law may be modified thus :-wherever in the middle of a word two or more conjunct consonants which can not be assimilated to each other appear, the intervocalic i' (vyakta into viyattam) or 'u' (pluta into pulutam) is inserted since the genius of the Tamil language is to minimise the conjunct consonant. 'U' alone is not inserted, but 'i' also is inserted; this is generally determined by the consonants that precede and those that follow. This point is clearly stated in Vîracoliyam and Nannul, the grammars of the medieval period3. Viracoliyam speaks of the

Ētu, tātu ennum vaţa-moli-y-iruti-y-ukaramum...kuruki-yicaittal-vēnţum...aiinanam icaiyāmaiyin...kurriyal-ukaram tamil-ccirappeluttākalin vaţamoliyin vārātāyirrū. (T. M. V. 28.)

^{2.} But it must be noted that the final 'u', whether at the end of pure Tamil words or tadbhava words or tatsama words, is now pronounced as if its 'û', though grammars sanction it only in certain cases. This is a clear case where false analogy has played its part to the full; for instance, the final 'u' in 'itu' must have one mātrā and must be pronounced as 'u', but it is now pronounced as 'û' though it is quite against the rules of grammar.

insertion of 'i' and 'u', while Nannul speaks of that of 'a' also as in aratanam, the tadbhava of Sanskrit ratual, which is seen in the following sentence,

' aratanak kalaca viyan karam ' (T. P. katavul, 3)

(Big hand holding a pot made of gems.)

- 1.3431. ' \bar{U} '. \bar{U} , as Dr. Caldwell says, is sufficiently persistent.
- 1.344. 'E' & 'O'. These two sounds, Dr. Caldwell says, are not found in Sanskrit. His statement is almost true; but Patañjali in his Mahābhāṣya says that 'e' and 'o' are not generally found in Sanskrit, but find a place in the Sātyamugri and Rāṇāyanīya Šākhās of the Sāma Vēda². The same point is noted in Tolkāppiya-mutaṛ-cūttira-virutti³.
- M. J. Vinson says that e' and o' are always preceded by y' & w' respectively. This is true in the Tamil districts of India; but in Jaffna, I hear that it is not so⁴.
- 1.345. 'Ē' and 'Ō'. Dr. Caldwell seems to think like the Tamil grammarians of the modern period that these two sounds are the same as are found in Sanskrit. The author of Pirayökavivēkam says in his commentary under the 5th sūtra 'akara v-ikaram-ē kāram-ākum' (a and i become ē) and 'akara v-ukaram-ōkāram-ākum' (a and u become ō) and calls them canti-y-akkaram.

Mav-va-k k-ukaram-um nakara-k k-akaram-um Micai-varum ra-v-vali y-u-v-vu m-ām pira. (Na. 149.)

This insertion of a vowel at the beginning is called prothetic anaptyxis and the same in the middle is called medial anaptyxis. This plays a large part in the Indian Präkṛts. Cf. ittiyā for strī and paduma for padma.

Chandogānām sātyamugri rānāyanīyāh ardhamēkāram ardhamökārañ cādhyīyatē; naiva hi lokē nānyasmin vēdē ardha ēkārarordha-okāro vāsti (M. B. i. 22, lines 21, 23 & 24).

Ekara okarankal....cāmavētam-uţaiyāruļ oru-cārār icai parri-k kuļūu-k-kurifola k konţotupa-v-ākalānum (T. M. V. 26).

A temporary fact of Phonetics in Dravidian, Dixieme Serie tome 18, 1911....(J. A.)

Civañana-munivar also says so.1 But it seems to me that they are entirely different; for the Sanskrit 'e' and 'e' are diphthongs in their origin wherever they represent the Indo-Germanic tautosyllabic ai, ei and oi, and tauto-syllabic au, en and ou, respec-They are still remembered as such in Prātiśākhyas (R. V. P. i, 11: and A. V. P. iii, 40), and by the Sanskrit Grammarians Pānini, Patañjali and others. Cf. ēcah sandhyaksarāni. For grammatical purposes too, they are such when a and i coalesce into ' ë', and a and u coalesce into ' ō' and wherever they are respectively split into ay and av in sandhi as in $d\bar{e}v\bar{e}$ + iha and gurō+iha which respectively become dēvayiha and guraviha. But they are not diphthongs wherever they represent the Indo-Germanic az. In pronunciation, they became simple long vowels even in the Samhitā period. This is seen from the fact that, in sandhi if the initial member of the succeeding word is 'a' and the final member of the preceding word is 'e' or 'o', the 'a' is elided.2 (cf. harê+atra=harêtra: gurê+atra= gurötra) Ci. lupyatē tu akūra-ēkārāukārapūrvah (Tai. P. xi, 1): ēkāra-ukārāntāt pūrvah padādērakārasya (A. V. P. iii, 53). For grammatical purposes it is more an exception that they are simple long vowels rather than a general rule. But in Tamil they are always simple sounds as in the parent Indo-European language, and not diphthongs; for a+i becomes a-v-i or $\bar{a}+i$ becomes $\bar{a}-v-i$ as in a-v-v-itam and $\bar{a}-y$ -irutinai, and so also a+u becomes a-v-uas in pala-v-until. This difference in their nature is one of the points which determine that Tamil is independent of Sanskrit.

- M, J. Vinson is of opinion that these two also are preceded by 'y' and 'w' in their pronunciation. But I hear that such is not the case in Jaffna.
- 1.346. 'AI': 1.3461. Dr. Caldwell says in p. 133 that "ci unlike the Sanskrit diphthong 'ai' represents c and i and not a

Ekaram-āvatu akarakkūņum-ikarakkūņum....tammuļ-otticaittu naramatahkal-p\u00f6nr\u00e4kal\u00e4nyum...ivv\u00e4r\u00e4tal-parri\u00e4, \u00d8, ai, au en\u00f4n n\u00e4nki\u00e4aiyum va\u00e4an\u00fcl\u00e4r cantiyakkaram-en\u00f6par, (T. M. V. 24.)

^{2.} Cf. M. V. G. p. 4 Para 6 and p. 15 Para 2.

and i." The reasons he adduces for the same are (1) fit is represented in Grantha and Malayāļam by a double e and in Telugu-Canarese by a character which is compounded of e and i; (2) it is also to be observed that the Tamil ei is the equivalent of the e of the Malayāļam accusative and is the ordinary representative of the final e of Canarese substantives and verbal nouns; (3) it is worthy of notice also that Kumārilabhaṭṭa in transliterating Tamil naḍei into Sanskrit characters writes it not as naḍei, but as naḍe.'

If the first reason holds good for Tamil 'ei', it holds good for Sanskrit 'āi' also, since it is represented in Devanagarī script as two e's (t); it is not safe to determine the nature of a sound from its symbol.1 The second point has already been answered under 1.3412. As regards the third point, Kumārilabhatta may have had in his mind the forms of spoken Tamil but not of written Tamil for he says cor for coru.2 The 'u' at the end is only 'ii' and so people may have pronounced cori as almost similiar to cor. I have already stated that the final 'u' or 'u' is spoken only as ' ii'. Similarly nadai also may have been pronounced as nade, as is done even now. Hence Dr. Caldwell's third reason also cannot stand. Besides, Tolkappiyanar clearly savs that ai my be split into a and i3 and ay may be used instead of ai 4. It also appears to me that the way in which Tamil ai was, and is, pronounced may have influenced the pronunciation of Sanskrit ai in the pre-Christian Era; for, in the earliest times, it is possible that the latter was pronounced as āi since it represented generally the Indo-Germanic āi, ēi and ōi. At the time of the author of Taittiriya-Prātiśākhya, it appears it

The symbols in Telugu for v, p, s, n and h have greater similarity than dissimilarity and it is not safe to conclude from it that they are related sounds.

Cor ityukte (K. T. V. under 1—3—9 and pp. 200 and 201 in Vol. 42 of the Indian Antiquary).

Akara ikara m-aikāra m-ākum. (Tol. E. 54.)

Akara-t t-impar yakara-p pulliyum
 Ai-y-e neţuñ-cinai mey-pera-t tōŋrum. (Ibid. 56.)

was pronounced as $a(\frac{1}{2})i(1\frac{1}{2})$ where a had half a $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$ and i one and a half $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}s$.

Cf. Akārārdham āikārāukārayōh ādih

and

Ikārō adyardhaḥ pūrvasya śēṣaḥ. (Tai. P. ii, 26 and 28.)

The same, it seems to me, was the pronunciation at the time of Patanjali.

Cf. Āicōśca uttarabhūyastvāt. (M. B. i, 22, 18.)

It has been accepted that Patañjali lived in the 2nd century before Christ. The Tamil extant Grammar Tolkāppiyam may be taken to belong at least to the beginning of the Christian era, and there is no inscription or literary work in Telugu, Kanarese and Malayāļam belonging to that date. It is evident that, at the time of Tolkāppiyaṇār, ai in Tamil was pronounced in the same way as it is now, since he says ai may sometimes be written as ai (a) or ay (aii). Hence I am led to believe that the present pronunciation of Sanskrit ai might be due to the influence of Dravidian languages, especially Tamil.

1.3462. This ai is different from Sanskrit ai in two ways. Sanskrit ai is, for grammatical purposes, āi, and it is formed by the coalescence of a or ā with ē; but, in Tamil, if a or ā is followed by ē, both would respectively become 'avē' generally and āvē or āyē, but never 'ai'. Hence, this cannot be said to be a diphthong in the same way as the Sanskrit āi; but it may be called so since it is split into a and i, or a and y, if it stands at the beginning of a word. Cf. aivaṇam Against or ayvaṇam for aivaṇam (@werō).

^{1.} When Taittiriya-Prātišākhya says that ai was a (½) i (1½) it refers in all probability to its pronunciation. Šukla Yajurvēda Prātišākhya says that the first part of ai and au is a and the second part and ā. This evidently refers to the etymology of the same. Bg.vēda Prātišākhya and Atharva-vēda Prātišākhya do not seem to say anything definitely on this point. But Dr. A. A. MacDonell says that ai and au were pronounced as ai and au even at the time of Prātišākhyas. (M. V. G. 15. 4.) I am not able to find out why he has said so.

1.347. 'AU'. Dr. Caldwell states that 'it has been placed in the (Dravidian) alphabets solely in imitation of Sanskrit. It is used only in the pronunciation of Sanskrit derivatives; and when such derivatives are used in Tamil, they are more commonly pronounced without the aid of this diphthong. Ordinarily, the diphthong is separated into its component elements; that is, the simple vowels a and u, from which it is derived, are pronounced separately, with the usual euphonic v of the Tamil between them to prevent hiatus,-e.g. the Sanskrit noun saukhyam is ordinarily pronounced and written in Tamil as šavukkiyam," (C. D. G. 136.) The same opinion is held by M. J. Vinson¹ and G. U. Pope.2 Their whole argument stands on the assumption that it is used only in the pronunciation of Sanskrit derivatives. But there are words like anvai, panvam, kanvutal, vanvutal, etc. which are pure Tamil words. In such cases au is replaced by av as avval, pavvam, kavvutal, vavvutal, etc. and not by avu as in šavukkiyam as stated by Dr. Caldwell. Cf. nay kauvi (N. 70.) kavriyum (P. N. 188, 4). Besides, Tolkappiyanar says that the initial an of a word may be split into a and n^3 and llampuranar says under Tol. E. 56 that it may be replaced by av as ai is replaced by ay. But Sanskrit an though it was pronounced even at an early period as an4 is for grammatical purposes only an and can be replaced by only av and not av. It also seems to me that the Tamil pronunciation of an may have changed the pronunciation of Sanskrit au as in the case of ai, since the Sanskrit āu ought to have been once pronounced as āu and then as a (1) u (11) at least till the time of Mahabhasya.

1,348. 'Î'. This sound is peculiar to Tamil. It is found in the middle of words like kënmiyā,5 and in places where the

Sur un caractere singulier dans l'alphabet Tamoul in J. A. Onzieme Serie tome vii, 1916, p. 313, 4.

^{2.} P. H. T. L. p. 13.

^{3.} Ahara ukara m-aukāra m-ākum. (Tol. E. 55.)

^{4.} M. V. G. 15, 3.

Kurriya likara nirral ventum Yaven cinai-micai uraiyacai-k kilavi-k-Küvayin varüum makara m-ürnte. (Tol. E. 34.)

final ' \dot{u} ' of a word is followed by ' y ' 1 as in $n\bar{a}k\dot{u} + y\bar{a}t\dot{u} = n\bar{a}k\dot{i} - y\bar{a}t\dot{u}$.

What could be its origin? This may have been originally in the parent Dravidian language a glide almost similar to ' \hat{u} ', and it may have been represented by ' \hat{i} ' whenever it was followed by the palatal semi-vowel y. Hence the Tamil grammarians have stated that \hat{u} changes to \hat{i} when the former is followed by y in sandhi.

1.3481. 'Ü': 1.34811. It has already been stated that this differs from u both in quality and quantity and also undergoes change in sandhi quite differently from it. This is not found in Sanskrit, but it plays a large part in Tamil and so Tolkāppiyam contains one full chapter explaining the changes which it undergoes in sandhi. It is used as the final member of words except in the word nintai² after a voiceless consonant in words other than those which have only one short vowel which is not followed by a conjunct consonant or āytam.³ Thus in atu, itu, utu, u is not kurriyal-ukaram; but in aṅkū, aħtū, alapū, yātū, it is kurriyal-ukaram. U in ēļu, the modern form of ancient ēṭ cannot be kurriyal-ukaram according to its definition in grammar, though it is pronounced so now. I have already stated that it has for its organ of articulation that of the previous voiceless consonant.4 (Cf. 1.22. supra)

What could be its origin? Was it formerly u and was then shortened on account of accent or was it a vowel glide like the neutral vowel which appeared in pronouncing the final

- Punariya nilai-y-iţai-k kurukalu m-uritte
 Unara-k kūrin munnar-t torrum, (Ibid. 35.)
- Kurriya l-ukara murai-p-peyar marunkin Orriya nakara-micai nakaramotu mutalum. (Ibid. 67.)
- Nettelut t-imparun toţarmoli yārrum Kurriya t-ukaram valtā rūrntē. (Ibid. 36.)
- Cārntu-vari n-allatu tamakk-iyal p-ila-v-ena-t Tērntu-veļip paţutta v-ēnai mūlinum Tattañ cārpir pirappoţu civani Otta kāţciyir ram-m-iyal p-iyalum. (Ibid. 101.)

voiceless consonants and later on taken as a secondary sound? If it were the former, it need not play in sandhi a part different from u. I have already stated that it (\dot{u}) is dropped if it is followed by a word commencing with a vowel, while u takes the intervocalic v when it is followed by a vowel, cf. $n\ddot{a}kk\dot{u}+i\dot{n}k\ddot{e}=n\ddot{a}kki\dot{n}k\ddot{e}$; $atu+i\dot{n}k\ddot{e}=atuvi\dot{n}k\ddot{e}$. Hence the latter view that it was in the parent Dravidian a vowel glide is worth considering. If that be so, we have to assume that the Tamil grammarians happened to recognise the glide, take it as a secondary sound and conclude that no voiceless consonant could be the final member of any word.

1.3482. UYIR-ALAPEŢAI: 1.34821. The authors of Viracoliyam, Neminātam, Nannūl, Ilakkaņa-viļakkam and Pira-yöka-vivēkam state that the seven sounds, āa, īi, ūu, ēe, aii, ōo, auu are uyir-aļapeṭai each having three mātrās and have taken them as secondary vowels.

But Tolkāppiyaṇār has not mentioned them under secondary sounds; for it seems to me that in cases of aṭapeṭai, āa, īi, etc. are not single sounds according to him, but two sounds made up of ā and a, ī and i, etc. This is clear from the following points mentioned by him. He states in the sūtra

Mū-v-aļa p-icaitta l-ōr-eļut t-inṛē. (Tol. E. 5.)
that there is no single sound having three mātrās; in the sūtra
Nīṭṭam vēṇṭi n-a-v-v-aļa p-uṭaiya
Kūṭṭi y-eļūnta l-eṇmaṇār pulavar. (ibid. 6.)

he says that, if the quantity of a sound is to be lengthened, separate sounds having the desired additional quantity should be added. In the sutra

> Kunricai moli-vayi n-inricai niraikkum Nettelut t-impa r-otta-kur reluttē. (ibid. 41.)

Here it is worth noting that the vowel-glide i between d & r in the Sanskrit word Indra has appeared as a separate letter in the word Indira derived from the same. Similarly, the second a in the word manoratha which originally was manoratha. (Wackernagel's Altindisch Grammatik.)

it is said that as many short like-vowels are added after a long vowel as the additional matras needed. In the sutra

E-ena varum-uyir meyyî r-ākātů. (ibid. 71.) it is said that e cannot be the final letter of a word if it is preceded by a consonant and in the sūtra

Ekara v-okaram peyarkkī r-ākā Muṇṇilai moliya v-eṇmaṇār pulavar Tērramuñ cirappu m-alvali y-āṇa. (ibid. 273.)

it is said that it follows \tilde{e} denoting certainty or superiority. Hence in $\tilde{e}e$ kontan, e is taken to be a sound separate from \tilde{e} . In the sutra

Tērra v-ekaramun cirappi n-ovvum Mēr-kū r-iyarkai valleļuttu mikumē. (ibid. 274.) he says 'tērra v-ekaramum' which clearly shows that ē and c in

 \bar{E} -y-e y-iruti-k k-ckaram varumē. (ibid. 278.) he says that e will follow \bar{e} . That the same is the case with o in $\bar{o}o$ is inferred from the sūtras Tol. E. 273 and

ēe are considered separate sounds. In the sūtra

Vērrumai-k kaņņu m-alaņā r-arrē Okaram varuta l-ā-vayi n-āņa. (ibid. 293.)

In the sūtra

Kuriyatan munnaru m-öreluttu molikkum Ariya-1 tönru m-akara-k kilavi, (ibid. 227.)

it is said that a is inserted after ā, the final member of the standing word, if it is preceded by a short vowel as palā-a-k-kōtů or if it happens to be a single lettered word. In the sūtra,

> Aļapetai mikūu m-ikara-v-irupeyar Iyarkaiya v-ākuñ-ceyarkaiya v-eņpa.

(Tol. Col. 125.)
he says that the word ending in i which generally appears
with alapetai in the nominative case remains as it is without
any change in the vocative case. For instance, the word

It may be noted that the author of Pirayöka vivēkam says that in marāaţi, panāaţţu, a is separate from ā and an intervocalic is not inserted between them. (P. V. P. 49.)

tolii can be used in the same form as nominative or vocative. Here he states that the final member of such words is i and not ii. Besides in Ceyyul-iyal, a section in the third chapter of Tolkāppiyam, he says that alapetai may be taken as a separate syllable in prosody. For example in paṇiyār tēcm (Pattu. 220, 230) tē is taken as one acai and em as another, though e is added to prolong the quantity of ē.² Similarly in kaṭāak kalirrinmēl (K. 1087) kaṭā is taken as one acai and ak as another.³

The reason why he does not treat āa, Ii, etc. in cases of alapețai as single sounds seems to me this. In Manusmṛti there is a line

Akārašcāsya nāmnontē vācyah pūrvākşarah plutah
(M. S. 2. 125.)

in connection with the use of pluta in pratyabhi-vādana, This is interpreted by some commentators that a is only upalakşanam here and it means that the final syllable of the name of the person who prostrates himself before another should be pluta in the blessings offered by the latter, in the same way as is said by Pāṇini; (i.e.) if Dēvadatta is a dvija and prostrates himself before another, another should say 'ayuşman bhava Devadatta3'; if he is Hari, 'ayuşman bhava Hare3' But Haradatta, the author of Padamañjari, a commentary on Kāśikāvrtti, interprets the same line in a different way. The final syllable should be pluta and an 'a' should be added to it at the end. Hence the pratvabki-vādana should be in the form 'āyusmān bhava Devadatta3 a.' Similarly if two persons Šambhu and Pināka pāņi are at a distance and they are called, the forms that should be used in the vocative case are Sambho3 and Pinākapāņe3 in the opinion of Pāṇini and Sambho3 a, and Pināka pāne3 a, in the opinion of Haradatta. Similarly if they are not at a distance, the forms that should be used are Sambha3 n and Pinākapāṇa3 i according to Pāṇini, and Sambha3 va and Pinākabāṇa3 va according to Haradatta4.

Alapeţai-y-acai-nilai-y-ākalu-m-urittē. (Tol. Ceyyu. 17.)

These are cases of hiatus allowed by Tolkappiyanar.
 Pandit Reprint 12 Kāšibā pyākhyā uttarārdha p. 060

Pandit Reprint 12. Kāśikā vyākhyā uttarārdha p. 960 and P. A. S. 2. S3, S. 2. S4 and S. 3. 107.

The latter says that his interpretation is based on what is said in Bharataśāstra.¹

From this it is evident that there were two schools as regards the use of pluta. Tolkāppiyaṇār having in his mind the view of the author of Bharataśāstra may have thought that, since a separate syllable a is used by him in all places, there is no need for the previous sound to be pluta, and hence may have said that there is no need for a sound a3 having three $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}s$ before the final a. Besides to have a even after i3, e3, o3 may not have appealed to him. Hence he may have thought that, if one wants to use similar sounds, one might as well use \bar{i} , \bar{u} , \bar{e} and \bar{o} with i, u, e and o following them. This is most probably the reason for his saying that there is no single sound having three $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}s$ (Tol. E. 5). Hence, according to him, a|aptatai is that sound a, i, u, etc. which is super-added to the preceding long vowel \bar{a} , \bar{i} , \bar{u} , etc. It may be worth noting that the term a|aptai is adapted from the term pluta though in a somewhat different sense.

But the author of Viracoliyam in the light of what is said in Pāṇini's grammar may have mistaken alapetai for pluta in Sanskrit and hence has stated that da, li, etc. are alapetai and the others may have followed him. They have taken them as secondary sounds, since according to them secondary sounds are those which are other than primary sounds and no primary sound has more than two mātrās for its quantity. If alapetai, according to them, has three mātrās, they should have given separate names for āaa, āaaa and so on. But they have not done so. Perhaps they too may be called alapetai in the same way as a sound of four mātrās in Sanskrit is called pluta². The authors of Nēminātam, Naṇṇūl, Ilakkaṇa-viļakkam and Toṇnūl-viļakkam have followed the author of Vīracoliyam in toto in this point; but the authors of Nāṇṇūl and Ilakkaṇa-viļakkam, when they make mention of the vowels that can stand finally in words,

I searched for this statement in the extant editions of Bharata's Nātyaśāstra, but I was not able to find it out.

^{2.} Işyata eva catur mütrah plutah (M. B. iii. 421, 13 & 14).

say that the short vowels can stand finally even when they are part of alapetai. This is not consistent with their statement that alapetai has three mātrās. Hence it seems to me that they two did not have a decisive idea about it.

Uraiyāciriyar and Naccinārkkiniyar in commenting on the sūtra

> Nīṭṭam vēṇti n-a-v-v-aļa-p uṭaiya Kūṭṭi-y-clūuta l-enmanār pulavar. (Tol. E. 6.)

say that the long and the short vowel should be pronounced together. Hence it appears that, in their opinion, āa, ii, etc., are pronounced as vowels having three mātrās, but for grammatical purposes they are separate sounds. Civañāṇa-muṇivar, on the other hand, says that aļapēṭai eļuttū has three mātrās² and it is made up of one long vowel and one short vowel and since it is used in the place of the long vowel only for lengthening its mātrā without any change in meaning, it is not included as a separate sound, and hence it is not included among vowels.¹ On considering the sūtras in Tolkāppiyam mentioned above, it may be clear that Civañāṇa-muṇivar confounds the pluta in Sanskrit with aļapēṭai. But in the definition of cārpēļuttū or secondary sounds he agrees with Tolkāppiyaṇār and hence he has not included aļapēṭai among them.

The number of uyir-alapetai is 7 according to the grammarians of the medieval and modern periods except Nannūlār. He says that they are 21 taking into consideration the place in a word where it occurs, whether at the beginning, middle or end. But since the sound is generally the same whether it is at the beginning, middle or end, it does not appear to be scientific to further sub-divide 7 and make them into 21.

Kurruyi r-alapi v-īyā m-ekaram Meyyō tēlā ton na-v-vo-tām-au Kakara vakaramō tāku m-enpa. (Na. 108 & I. V. 29.)

Mūlitu māttiraiyāy uccarikkunkāl aļapeţai y-eluttelitum (T. M. V. p. 24.)

Aļapeţai anneţţeluttēţu...(p. 2+, Line 3.) nunnunarvānērntunarka (T. M. V. p. 24).

1.3483.—'Shortened ai': Ancient Period. Tolkappiyanar mentions that 'ai' has in certain positions only one mātrā,¹ but does not say where it so happens, nor does he include such 'ai' among secondary sounds, since it has the same place of articulation as 'ai' though reduced in quantity, and it may sometimes be used as the initial letter of a word as aiyam and hence does not satisfy this definition of cārpeļuttū or secondary sounds.

Medieval and Modern Periods. The author of Vīracōliyam says that the shortened ai, has for its quantity one mātrā and a half. The author of Nēminātam agrees with him and includes it among secondary sounds. The authors of Naṇṇūl, Ilakkaṇa-vilakkam and Toṇṇūl-vilakkam say that it has only one mātrā for its quantity. C. J. Beschi says that it is shortened in such words as aippaci where it is the initial letter, in words like maṭaiyan where it is medial and in words like kuvaļai where it is final. All of them include it among secondary sounds since it is other than 'ai' having two mātrās and hence satisfies their definition of cārpeluttū. The division by Naṇṇūlār of 'shortened ai' into three according to its place in a word is unnecessary and unscientific. Civañāṇa-muṇivar agrees with Tolkāppiyaṇār.

Since no purpose is served by taking 'shortened ai' as a secondary sound, the opinion of Tolkāppiyaṇār seems to me to be the sound one.

1.3484. 'Shortened an': Ancient Period: Tolkappiyanar does not speak definitely about this; but the commentators on the sutra

> Ör-aļa p-āku m-iţaŋ-um-ā r-unţē Tērun kālai moli-vayi ŋ-āṇa. (Tol. E. 57.)

say that what holds good for 'ai' holds good for 'an' also.

Medieval and Modern Periods: The 'shortened an' is considered in the same way, as 'shortened at.' Vîracoliyam says that it has one and a half mātrās while the rest,' one mātrā.

Ōraļa pāku m-iţanum-ā r-unţē
 Tērun kālai moli-vayi v-ūva. (Tol. E. 57.)

Whatever is said of 'ai' holds good of 'au' also. C. J. Beschi says that au is shortened to au only when it stands initially. Dr. Caldwell does not make mention of the shortened au.

1.35. Vowel Gradation. This plays only a very small part in Tamil. In the declension of pronouns like nī, nām, tāṇ, the ī and the ā are shortened in the oblique cases as niṇṇai, niṇṇāl, etc., nammai, nammāl, etc., taṇṇai, taṇṇāl, etc., and yā in the pronoun yāṇ is shortened to c in the oblique cases as cṇṇai, cṇṇāl, etc. But on the whole its part in the Tamil language is very small since the cases and the conjugation in Tamil are not classified as strong and weak, except that the nominative case may be considered strong and the remaining weak.

In some of the verbal forms of monosyllabic roots having \tilde{a} , \tilde{a} is shortened to a.

Root.	Present Tense.	Past 7	Future.	Past Relative Participle.
$t\bar{a}$	tarukirān	tantān	laruvān	tanta
kāņ	känkirän	kanţān	känpän	kanta
cā	cākirān	cettân	cāvān	cetta

Sometimes the negative forms of verbs have long vowels, while the positive forms short ones.

Root.	Affirmative.	Negative.
$k\bar{a}n$	kanţān	kāṇāṇ
$v\bar{a}$	varuvān	vārāņ
$t\bar{a}$	taruvān	tärän

In forming nouns from certain verbs, the short vowels are lengthened.

Root.	Noun.
vițu	vīţii
keţu	kēţii
paţu	pāţii
min	กะเก
cuțu	cūţii

This is one of the most important points where Tamil differs from Indo-European languages in general and Sanskrit in particular where gradation plays a very prominent part.

1.36. Initial and final vowels in words in Tamil and in Sanskrit; Their Similarities and Dissimilarities: Tolkāppiyaṇār says that all the 12 primary vowels can stand both as the initial and the final member of words, but the final an can be preceded only by k or v, the final e cannot be preceded by any consonant, the final o by any consonant except n, the final ē and ō by ñ and n and û by n or v.¹ Of the secondary vowels û cannot stand at the beginning, while shortened i can stand neither at the beginning nor at the end. The author of Viracoliyam differs from Tolkāppiyaṇār in the fact that e and o cannot stand as final members. This is possibly due to the fact that, according to the latter, e in ēe (a particle denoting certainty) is not a part of it in the same way as is taken by the former and the word 'no' might have become obsolete in his time?.

But Nannulär and other grammarians agree with Tolkäppiyanär in this respect.³ According to them alapetai and shortened ai' can stand both at the beginning and at the end, shortened au' only at the beginning, u cannot stand at the beginning and i cannot stand either at the beginning or at the end.

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    Paŋŋī r-uyiru moli-muta l-ākum. (Ibid. 59.)
        Uyir-au v-eñciya v-iyuti y-ākum. (Ibid. 69.)
        Ka-va-v-ð ţiyaiyi n-au-v-u m-ākum. (Ibid. 70.)
        E-ŋa varum-uyir mey-y-î r-ākātu. (Ibid. 71.)
        O-v-v-u m-arrē na-v-v-alai kaţaiyē. (Ibid. 72.)
        Ē ð eŋum-uyir ñakāra-t-t-illai. (Ibid. 73.)
        Ū ū kāra na-va-v-oţu navilā. (Ibid. 74.)
    Īţu-makara nakaraikaţāmu m-iţai-y-iŋattil
        Ērum-vakara m-olintaintum-īrain telil-uyirum
```

Erum-vakara m-olintaintum-train telit-nyirum Vīgumati-vēit kaţain-kumari-k-kiţai mēviggengü Kūgun-tamilinuk k-tggeluttām-enpar kō! vaļaiyē. (V. C. 8.)

Āvi ña-ņa-ua-ma-na ya-ra-la-va la-la-mey Cāyu m-ukara nāl-āru m-īrē. (Na. 107).

The Rg-vēda Prātiśākhya, the Šukla Yajur-vēda Prātiśākhya and Atharva-vēda Prātiśākhya say that ! (%) cannot stand as final. The Rg-vēda Prātiśākhya adds r also in the 1st verse of the 12th chapter. The Šukla Yajur-vēda Prātiśākhya adds that r can stand as final only in the first members of compounds. It seems to me that in mentioning the initial and the final vowels in words, Tolkāppiyaṇār has followed the Prātiśākhyas since Pāṇini considered it unnecessary to mention them.



Nalkārah svarēsu. (R. V. P. 1. 9.) Svarāsca ļkāravarjam. (S. V. V. P.1. 87.) Anļkārah svarah padyah (A. V. P. 1. 4.)

^{2.} Nantam yanti.... kāraļakārāu. (R. V. P. 12. 1.)

Nakārarkārāvagrahē. (S. Y. V. P. 1. 88.)

1.4. CONSONANTS: 1.41. CLASSIFICATION.

1.411. Ancient Period:—Tolkāppiyanār says that there are eighteen consonants from k to n which may be classified as follows:—1

		Voiceless	Voiced
	(Guttural	k	ri i
Plosives:	Palatal	c	n
	Cerebral		20
	Alveolar	ŧ	n - Nasal also.
	Dental	t	n
	Labial	P	791
	Palatal	y	
Semi-vowels Cerebral Dental Labio-dental	Cerebral	r & !	
	0000		
Fricatives ²	Cerebral	T .	<u>l</u>

Tolkāppiyanār classifies consonants as vallinam, mellinam and iṭaiyinam. This must have been done with reference to the muyarci (prayatna) or effect. K, c, t, t, p and r are mentioned as vallinam³, \tilde{n} , \tilde{n} , \tilde{n} , n, n, n, n, as mellinam⁴ and y, r, l, v, l

The parallelism between

Nakara-v-iruvāy-p patinenneluttumeyyena molipa. (Tol. E. 9.)
and

Hakārāntāni kādīni vyañjanāni vidur budhāḥ. (B.N. p. 170, 8.) is worth noting; but we cannot say definitely whether the extant text of Nāṭyaśāstra is anterior or posterior to Tolkāppiyam.

- In Tamil grammar r and l are not separately classified as fricatives, but from their pronunciation, I have mentioned them as such for the sake of clearness.
 - 3. Vallelut t-enpa ka-ca-ţa ta-pa-ra. (Tol. E. 19.)
 - 4. Mellelut t-enpa na-na na-ma-na. (ibid. 20.)

and *l* as *iţaiyiṇam*¹. He does not mention the distinction between the semi-vowels *y*, *r*, *l*, *v* and the fricative *l*, nor takes *r* as a fricative. The word *iţaiyiṇam* appears to me to be the translation of the Sanskrit *antaḥstha*.

He also states the place of articulation for the different consonants:—k and n are produced by the contact of the root of the tongue with the root of the hard palate², c and n by that of the middle part of the tongue with the middle part of the hard palate, n and n by that of the tip of the tongue with the front of the hard palate n by that of the tip of the extended tip of the tongue completely touching the upper gums n, n and n by the tip of the tongue being raised and allowed to gently touch the hard palate, n and n by the tip of the tongue being raised and allowed to gently press against the hard palate, n and n by the extended tip of the tongue respectively touching the upper gums and pressing against them, n and n by joining the lips n

^{1.} Itai-y-elut t-enpa ya-ra-la va-la-la. (ibid. 21.)

^{2.} Kakāra nakāra mutanā v-annam. (ibid. 89.)

^{3.} Cakāra ñakāra v-iţainā v-annam. (ibid. 90.)

^{4.} Takāra ņakāra nuņi-nā v-aņņam. (ibid. 91.)

Here it is to be noted that t and n as defined here are not now pronounced in the same way, but are pronounced as cerebrals; but the old pronunciation is generally preserved in Malayāļam.

Anna nanniya pan-mutan marunkin Nā-nuni parantu mey-y-ura v-orra-t Tām initù pirakkun takāra nakāram. (Tol. E. 93.)

Anari nuni-nā v-anna m-orţa Ra&kā na&kā n-āyiranşum pirakkum. (ibid. 94.)

Nuni-nā v-aņari y-aņnam varuţa
 Rakāra ļakāra m-āyiranţum pirakkum. (ibid. 95.)

Nā-viţimpu vinkı y-anpan mutal-ura
 Āvavi v-anna m-orravum varuţavum
 Lakāra ţakāram-a y-iranţum pirakkum. (ibid. 96).

^{10.} Ital-iyaintu pirakkum pakāra makāram. (ibid. 97.)

w by bringing the upper teeth against the lower lip¹, y by allowing the air which passes through the neck to pass very close to the hard palate². And the mellipum letters have, in addition to their places of articulation noted above, the nose also³.

The difference between n and n is that the former is produced at the front of the palate with the tip of the tongue facing backwards and that the latter is produced behind it with the tip of the tongue facing forwards.

Here it is worth noting that the place of articulation for the gutturals, palatals, dentals, labials and v as mentioned by Tolkāppiyaṇār closely agree with those mentioned in Taittirīya Prātiśākhya and to a large extent with those in other Prātiśākhyas. Cf.

> Kakāra nakāra mutanā v-annam (Tol. E. 86) with Hanumūlē jihvāmūlēna kavargē sparšayati (Tai. P. ii, 35);

Cakāra ñakāra miţas-nā v-annam (Tol. E. 20) with Tālān jihvāmadhyēna cavargē (Tai. P. ii, 36);

Tālusthānā madhyēna (S. Y. V. P. i, 79) and

Tālavyānām madhya-jihvam (A. V. P. i, 21) ;

Annam nanniya ... nā-nuni parantu . . takāra nakāram (Tol. E. 93) with

Jihvāgrēņa tavargē dantamūlēņu (Tai. P. ii, 38) and Dantyānām jihvāgram prastīrņam⁴ (A. V. P. i, 24,); Ital-iyaintu pirakkum pakāra makāram (Tol. E. 97) with Oşthābhyām pavargē (Tai. P. ii, 39.);

Pal-l-ita [-iyaiya vakāram pirakkum. (ibid. 98.)

Annañ cernta mitarrelu zali-y-icai
 Kannur rataiya yakāram pirakkum. (ibid. 99.)

Mellelut t-ārum pirappi n-ākkañ
 Colliya palli nilaiyina v-āyinu
 Mūkkin vali-y-icai yāppura-t tōnrum. (ibid. 100.)

The word prastirnam in A. V. P. and the word parantu in Tolkäppiyam convey exactly the same meaning.

Pal-l-italiyaiya vakaram pirakkum (Tol. E. 97) with Oşthantabhyam dantair vakarê (Tai. P. ii. 43.).

- 1. 412. Medieval period:—In the medieval period the same is said about the classification and production of consonants with this difference:—Nannūlār states that p and m are produced by the upper lip pressing upon the lower lip¹ and y is produced by allowing the root of the tongue to press upon the root of the hard palate². Practically, there is no difference between Nannūl and Tolkāppiyam as regards the first point and there is slight difference as regards the second point.
- 1.413. Modern period: 14131. The author of the Ilakkanavilakkam agrees with Nannulär as regards the place of production of p and m and agrees with Tolkappiyanar as regards that of y.3

1.4132.4	and mod	Voiceless.	Voiced.	e e
	個的	2/2	Non-nasal.	Nasal.
	Guttural	k .	g	n
	Palatal	C.07	9 1	ñ
Plosives.	Cerebral		d	n5,n6
	Dental	1	d	n
	Labial	Þ	b	711

- 1. Mīkī [-italurap pa-m-ma-p pirakkum. (Na. 81.)
- 2. Afinā vaţiyana muţayat tongum. (ibid. 82.)
- Miki [-ita]ur-a-p pakāra makāra m-iranţu m-annañ cernta miţarreļu vaļiyicai kannurraţiya yakāramum. (I. V. 12.)
- This refers to the consonant sounds found in certain dialects, if I may so call them spoken in the districts of Madura, Trichinopoly, Tanjore, etc.
- * n ' is now pronounced by rounding the tip of the tongue and making it touch the roof of the palate. Hence at present f and n are cerebrals and not alveolars.
- 6. 'n' is classed as cerebral though, when pronouncing it, the tip of the tongue is raised and allowed to gently touch the hard palate which is in front of the roof.

Semi-vowels.	Palatal Cerebral		y r, !
Semi-vowers.	Dental		1
	(Labio-dental		W.
	(Palatal	\$	
Fricatives.	-/ Dental	5	
	Cerebral	r & s	1
Aspirate.		ls	

All the sounds noted here are not found in certain dialects. For instance, in the dialect spoken in Tinnevelly it is said by the residents there that the sounds f and f are not generally found; in the dialect spoken in Madras the aspirate f is not generally found; in the dialect spoken at Jaffna it is said that most of the sounds f, f, f, f, f, f, f, and f are not found. Though new sounds have crept into the language, new symbols for them have not been introduced except for f, f (in very few cases in Vaiṣṇavaite works) f, f and f. But Dr. Caldwell thinks that all these sounds have been in existence in the Tamil Language from the earliest time since he says that the Tamilian rule which requires the same consonant to be pronounced as f in one position and as f in another ... is essentially inherent in the language and has been a characteristic principle of it from the beginning f. Whether his view is correct or wrong will be discussed in 1.44, infra.

 1.42. A point to be noted about Vallinam, Mellinam and Iţaiyiŋam:—Ilampūranar states in his commentary under the sūtra—

> Mellelut t-ārum pirappi n-ākkam Colliya paļļi nilaiyina v-āyinum Mūkkin vaļi-y-icai yāppura-t tōnrum (Tol. E. 100)

noted above that the six mcl-l-cluttû are clearly made audible by the air passing through the nose, though they are produced in the places noted above; since the word 'yāppura' is used, it is to be noted that iṭai-y-cluttû are clearly made audible by the air passing through the neck or gullet and val-l-cluttû by the air passing through the head. Here it deserves to be noted that

^{1.} Iţai-y-eluttirkû miţarru-taliyum, val-l-eluttirkû talai-valiyun kolka. (Tol. E. 100, Ilam.)

Tolkāppiyaṇār has mentioned in the sūtra that nose also is the place of production in addition to that mentioned for the respective nasal possibly having before his mind the sūtras nāsikyāḥ nāsikāsthānāḥ (Tai. P. ii, 49.) and vargavaccāiṣu (Tai. P. ii, 51). How Iļampūraṇar and the later grammarians have made a mistake has been fully dealt with in 1.1. supra.

Another point to be noted about Itai-y-inam :- In Ilakkanavilakkam1 and Tolkappiya-mutarcuttira-virutti2 it is said that itaiyinam is midway between vallinam or the voiceless consonants and the mellinam or the nasals in their nature. It is not clear how it is so. Itai-y-cluttu is simply the translation of the Sanskrit antahstha which means midway between vowel and sparsa or explosives, since, in pronouncing vowels most of which have vivrta-prayatna, air completely escapes and in pronouncing explosives which have sprsta-prayation, there is complete contact between the tongue and the other organs of speech so that air is completely arrested in its passage, and in pronouncing y, r, l, v, which have isat-sprsta-prayatua, there is only slight contact between the tongue and the vocal organs so that most of the air freely passes and in pronouncing ś, ş, s, which have işad-vivrtaprayatna, air is allowed to escape with friction. The difference between semi-vowels and fricatives lies only in the fact that there is less prevention in the former and greater prevention in the latter; but both agree in the point, that in pronouncing them air does not completely escape as in the case of vowels, nor is it completely arrested in its passage as in the case of explosives. Hence the author of Tolkappiyam has, in my opinion, included y, r, l, v, l and l under one category and called them itaiyelutti. But it is surprising that the authors of Ilakkanavilakkam and

(T. M. V. p. 23.)

Melleluttaiyum valleluttaiyum nökka-t täm iţai-nikaravāy olittalānum. (I. V. 7, Comm.)

Valleluttukkan munnum av-v-avarrirk-inamotta melleluttukkal av-v-avarrin-pinnumäki valikkappattana. Av-v-irantu nökki-yallatu itai-nikaranaväy-olittal ariya-p-patämaiyin atu-parri itaiveluttukkal av-v-iru-kürrirkum-pinvaikappattana.

Tolkappiya-mutar-cuttira-virutti who seem to have had considerable knowledge of Sanskrit have gone wrong in this point.

But Dr. Caldwell has rightly translated itaiyelutti as semivowels.

The Dravidian Law of the Convertibility of Surds and Sonants: - This theory is explained by Dr. Caldwell in p. 138 as follows:- There are distinct traces of the existence of this law in all the Dravidian dialects but it is most systematically and most fully developed in Tamil and Malayalam. The law as apparent in the Tamil-Malayalam system of sounds is as follows :- k, t, t, p, the first unaspirated consonants of the first, third, fourth and fifth vargas are always pronounced as tenues or surds (i. e., as k, t, t, ϕ) at the beginning of words, and whenever they are doubled. The same consonants are always pronounced as medials or sonants (i. e., as g, d, d, b) when single in the middle of words. sonant cannot commence a word, neither is a surd admissible in the middle, except when doubled; and so imperative is this law and so strictly is it adhered to, that when words are borrowed from languages in which a different principle prevails, as Sanskrit or English, the consonants of those words change from sonants to surds, or vice-versa according to their position -e. g. danta (Skt. a tooth) becomes in Tamil, tandam; bhāgva (Skt. happiness) becomes in Tamil, pākkiyam. This rule applies also to the case of compounds. The first consonant of the second word, though it was a surd when it stood independent, is regarded as a sonant when it becomes a medial letter in a compound word. This difference is marked in Telugu by a difference in character which is employed:-e.g. annadammulu (for annatammulu) eider and younger brother; koţţabadu (for kottapadu), to be beaten; but in Tamil and generally in Malayalam, the difference appears in the pronunciation alone. This rule applies to all compounds in Telugu; but in Tamil, when the words stand in a case-relation to one another, or when the first is governed by the second, the initial surd of the second word is not softened, but doubled and hardened, in token of its activity:e.g. instead of kottabadu, to be beaten, it prefers to say kotta(p)padu. In dvandva compounds Tamil agrees with Telugu.

A similar rule applies to the pronunciation of ch or c (the Tamil f) the first consonant of the second varga. When single, it is pronounced as a soft weak sibilant, with a sound midway between s, sh and ch. This pronunciation is unchanged in the middle of words and in all cases in which the letter is single; but when it is doubled, it is pronounced exactly like chch or éé. The principle involved in this instance is the same as in the cases previously mentioned, but the operation of the rule is in some degree different. The difference consists in the pronunciation of this consonant in the beginning of a word, as well as in the middle as a sonant, i.e. as ś. By theory it should be pronounced as ch at the beginning of a word-and it is worthy of notice that it always receives this pronunciation at the beginning of a word in vulgar, colloquial Tamil; and in Malayalam and Telugu it is written as well as pronounced ch. A somewhat similar rule prevails with respect to rough r of the Tamil which is pronounced as r when single and like ttr when doubled.

• The Tamilian rule which requires the same consonant to be pronounced as k in one position and as g in another, as t, t, p in one position and as d, d, b in another is not a mere dialectic peculiarity, the gradual result of circumstances, or a modern refinement invented by grammarians, but is essentially inherent in the language, and has been a characteristic principle of it from the beginning¹.

'The Tamil characters were borrowed, I conceive, from the earlier Sanskrit, and the language of the Tamilians was committed to writing on or soon after the arrival of the first colony of Brahmans, probably several centuries before the Christian Era. Yet even at that early period the Tamil alphabet was arranged in such a manner as to embody the peculiar Dravidian Law of the Convertibility of Surds and Sonants. The Tamil alphabet systematically passed by the sonants of the Sanskrit, and adopted

The Rev. Dr. Pope and M. J. Vinson state the same theory with a slight modification, the former in page 7 of his Tamil Hand Book and the latter in page 654 of Journal Asiatique Dixieme serie Tome 18 1911.

the surds alone, considering one character as sufficient for the expression of both classes of sounds. This circumstance clearly proves that ab initio the Dravidian phonetic system, as represented in Tamil, its most ancient exponent, differed essentially from that of Sanskrit'.

Here we have to examine (1) whether this law holds good for Tamil language from the earliest times or in Dr. Caldwell's words whether it is essentially inherent in the language, and has been a characterisitic principle of it from the beginning; (2) whether it is found most systematically and most fully developed in Tamil; (3) whether there was an imperative law that a sonant cannot commence a word, and that a surd is inadmissible in the middle of a word except when doubled; and (4) whether the Tamil alphabet systematically passed by the sonants of the Sanskrit, and adopted the surds alone, considering one character as sufficient for the expression of both classes of sounds.

 Whether it is essentially inherent in the language:— Tolkappiyanar, the author of the earliest extant grammar of the Tamil language, says in the first sutra

> Eluttena-p paţupa Akara-mutal Nakara v-iruvây muppa& t-enpa Carntu-varan marapin münr-alan kaţaiyê (Tol. E. 1.)

that there are thirty primary eluttů from a to n and three secondary eluttů, and in the second sūtra,

Avaitām
Kurriya l-ikaram kurriya l-ukaram
Āytam-eṇra
Muppār puļļiyu m-eļuttā r-aṇṇa, (Tol. E. 2.)

that the three secondary elutti are kurriyal-ikaram, kurriyal-ukaram and äylam which are denoted in script with dots. Does the word elutti here denote sound or symbol? It evidently means sound for the following reasons:—(a) In the third sūtra

> Ava<u>rr</u>uļ A i u

Eo ennu m-appā l-aintum Ör-ala p-icaikkun kurrelut t-enpa. (Tol. E. 3.)

he says ' of them a, i, u, e and o sound one matra and are called kurreluttu: in the fourth sutra,

Āīū

Ē ai

Ōau ennu m-appā l-ēlum

Ir-ala p-icaikku nettelut t-enpa. (Tol. E. 4.)

the next seven a, i, a, e, ai, a and an sound two matras and are called netteluttin; in the eighth,

Aukāra v-iruvāy-p

Panni r-eluttu m-wyir-ena molipa, (Tol. E. 8.) the twelve from a to an are called uyir; in the ninth,

symbols e.g. in the fifteenth sūtra,

Nakāra v-iruvāy-p Patiņeņ ņ-eluttu mey-y-eņa molipa. (Tol. E. 9.)

the last eighteen chittis with y at the end are called mey; in the tenth.

Mcy-y-ō ţ-iyaiyinu m-uyir-iya ririyā. (Tol. E. 10.) the nature of the vowel is not changed even when pronounced after a consonant; in the eleventh,

Mey-y-i n-alavě y-arai-y-ena molipa. (Tol. E. 11.) the quantity of a consonant is half a matra; in the nineteenth,

Vallelut t-enpa ka-ca-ța ta-pa-ra. (Tol. E. 19.)

k, c, t, t, p, r are valleluttu or voiceless consonant; in the twentieth,

Mellelut t-enpa na-na-na na-ma-na. (Tol. E. 20.) n, n, n, m, m are mellelutth or nasals; and in the twentyfirst,

Ițai-y-elut t-enpa ya-ra-la- va-la-la. (Tol. E. 21.) y, r, l, v, l, l are itaiyeluttu or semi-vowels. In all these sutras, elutta cannot but mean sound; for symbols cannot have quantity nor can they be classified as val-l-inam, mel-l-inam and itai-yinam. Besides, in the whole Nunmarapu, the first section in Eluttatikāram of Tolkāppiyam, he makes mention of words like uruvu (form) and iyarkai (nature) wherever he wants to denote Mey-y-i n-iyarkai pulli-y-otu nilaiyal. (Tol. E. 15.)
he says that the iyarkai or nature of the consonant is to be
indicated by dots; in the sixteenth sutra,

Ekara okara-t t-iyarkai-y-u m-arrē. (Tol. E. 16.)

he says that the iyarkai or nature of e and o is the same; he says in the 14th sutra

Ut peru pulli y-nruvā kum-m-ē. (Tol. E. 14).

that a dot within is its uruvu or form (of shortened m); the same is the case for vowel-consonants in the sūtra

Puļļi y-illā v-ellā meyyum Uru-v-uru v-āki y-akaramo ţ-uyirttalum Ēṇai y-uyirō t-uruvu-tirin t-uyirttalum Ā-y-ī r-iyala v-uyirtta l-ārē (Tol. E. 17.).

If then eluttu denotes sound, could Tolkappiyanar who is so careful as to note the difference in the quantity and the nature between i and i (shortened i), n and ii and who shows from his work especially the sections dealing with the classification and production of speech sounds intimate knowledge of Sanskrit Prātiśākhyas and Pāṇini's grammar where it is clearly stated that the voiced consonants are produced when the kantha is closed (i.e.) when the vocal chords are very close to each other and voiceless when kantha is open (i.e.) when the vocal chords are far away from each other (cf. Tai. P. ii, 4 & 5), have failed to denote the difference between the voiceless consonants k, c, t, t, p and voiced consonants g, j, d, d and b and mentioned them as rallinam? If the voiced sounds g, i, d, d, and b were in existence then, could he have stated that the number of primary sounds was only thirty? Hence it is clear that at the time of Tolkappiyanar the voiced consonant sounds did not exist in the Tamil Language. Hence Dr. Caldwell's statement "this peculiarity is essentially inherent in the language and has been a characteristic principle of it from the beginning' cannot stand.

The author of Viracoliyam and its commentator say that in adbhava words the consonant k is substituted for the four Sanskrit consonants k, kh, g and gh.¹ This would not have been the case if g had already existed. All other grammarians including the Rev. Beschi say that there are only thirty or thirtyone primary sounds.

But what Dr. Caldwell says is found in the spoken Tamil of the modern days. What might be the reason for this? Is it due to the general phonological principle that voiceless consonants are made voiced when they are found between vowels or preceded by nasals; or is it due to the fact that the Sanskrit words like naga and vandana were written in Tamil script as nakam (Bab) and vantanam (Bab) but pronounced as nagam and vandanam as in Sanskrit and then the same letters a and began to be pronounced under such conditions even in pure Tamil words as g and d. e. g. (Bab) agam and (Bab) tandai? It does not seem to be reasonable to accept the former alternative, because even now in Jaffna, such voiceless consonants are pronounced as voiceless and not voiced. Hence it becomes necessary to accept the second alternative.

- 2. Whether it is found most systematically and most fully developed in Tamil:—Since I have shown that voiced consonants were absent from Tamil language in the earliest times, it is evident that they were not developed in Tamil. (Even in Malayalam there is difference in pronunciation between anka and anga though 'k' in anka is slightly voiced.
- 3. Whether there was an imperative law that a sonant cannot commence a word, neither is a surd admissible in the middle except when doubled:—Since I have proved that the voiced consonants were absent from the early Tamil language, and since no grammarian from Tolkāppiyanār to Civañāna-munivar has stated

(V. Tat. 6.)

Ka-ca-ţa-ta-pa-v-enpavarro vvoŋraiyê kiţappinum, urappiyum eţuttum, kanaittum, mukkinum aintuvitamāka-c-collappaţu kinra aintu varkkankaţiŋum munpaţaiya-k-kiţappinār collappaţukinra voŋrinkannê y-atan pinnê niŋra mūnreluttum aţankum. (V. Tat. 6, Comm.)

^{1.} Muntiya-varkkankal-aintinu-mun-n-ongin müng-atankum.

this, it need not be discussed. But so far as the spoken Tamil of the modern days is concerned it holds good.

In this context it deserves to be mentioned that Dr. Caldwell and some modern scholars of Tamil seem to think that it is absolutely necessary to have the voiced consonants after the nasal of the same class1 and the voiced consonant or spirant between vowels and it is difficult to pronounce them otherwise, i.e., tankai, pancam, pantam and vantan should be pronounced as tangai, panjam, pandam and vandan and akam, icai, ațai, atu, tapu as aham or agam, iśai, adai, adu and tabu. This view appears to be unsustainable. For, as Vendryes points out in his Language2, "Difficulty and ease of pronunciation are purely relative conception, doubtless quite definite to the speaker, but variable for each language. We cannot appreciate them without a thorough knowledge of the structure of the language. In fact the articulatory habits are at the root of the difficulty, so that a sound group which one people find difficult to pronounce may be quite easy for a neighbouring people."

The following table will show that there are examples in Telugu, Kanarese, Malayalam and Tulu where voiceless consonants are found after nasals and between vowels:—

Telugu.	Kanarese.	Malayalam.	Tulu.	Tamil.
(a) inku konki vanki kānke añce	vańki kāke añce	аясаі	ลหิcal ลหิci (thither)	iñcu (to dry up) kokki (hook) vańki (armlet) kāṅkai (heat) añcal aṅkē (there)

D. C. G. p. 142.

Cf, p. 60—Language by Vendryes translated by Paul Radin,
 Ph. D.

Telugu.	Kanarese.	Malayalam.	Tulu.	Tamil.
kanţa (seeing)	uniu (there			kaṇṭa (having seen) uṇṭù
enta	entu (eight) enta (of			ețții enta (what)
(how much)	what sort)			chia (what)
•	kantu (to go down)			kantù (to be spoiled)
impu	impu			inpù (sweat- ness)
		kāmpu		kāmpů (stalk)
(b) āṭa kāpu	āţike kāpu	@afukan// a.asa321	kāpu	āṭṭam (play) kāppū (protec-
<i>aṭuka</i> (loft in a house)	(版)	The second		tion) aţukkû
nouse)	iļukku (narrow-	B		iţukkü
	ness)	3	ikara (here)	inkē

The initial c in catti is pronounced not as δ in Tulu, but as c itself.

This clearly shows that there need be no hard and fast rule that the consonants that follow nasals or that are between vowels should become voiced in the Dravidian languages. But, at the same time, examples like kungu (to sink) by the side of kunku (to sink) and idi (this) in Telugu, āḍu (to play) and paga (enmity) in Kanarese, iḍu (pledge) and unḍe (globe) in Tulu are found. This shows that there was a tendency in those languages to pronounce the voiceless consonants that followed nasals or that were between two vowels, as voiced. Since old Malayalam is almost Tamil, I have not given many examples from Malayalam here.

This change may have been due to the natural tendency of the people if we are able to find out such examples at a time when those languages were not influenced by Sanskrit. But, as far as we know at present, the earliest work in Telugu found out till now is said to be the Bhāratam by Nannaya which roughly belongs to the early part of the 11th century and the earliest inscription happens to be that of Kubja Viṣṇuvardhana of the 6th century. The earliest work in Kanarese that has been found out till now is the Kavirājamārga written about the 9th century, and the earliest reliable inscription, it is believed, does not go earlier than 6th century A. D.

During the 7th century we have Tevaram and Nalayirappirapantam which clearly show the great influence of Sanskrit on Tamil. Hence it is more probable for the change to have crept into Tamil through analogy with the sounds of the borrowed words in Tamil written in Tamil characters,

4. Whether one character was sufficient to express both classes of sounds:—Dr. Caldwell assumes that the Tamil alphabet was introduced after the advent of the Sanskritists, who found one character sufficient to express both classes of sounds. If that be so, why should they have invented new symbols to express voiced consonants g, j, d, d and b in Grantha script which they should have invented after the Tamils began to learn Sanskrit and in which almost all the symbols of the Tamil language, which, according to Gopinatha Rao, were adapted from Brāhmi script, were incorporated? Hence at the time when the Tamil script was newly invented, it did not have the voiced consonant sounds.

Therefore Dr. Caldwell's theory of Convertibility of Surds and Sonants can hold good only with reference to the spoken Tamil of the present day.

1.45. C and J according to Dr. Caldwell:—Dr. Caldwell says that the pronunciation of c is not s but c in the lowest colloquial dialect and it is probably the ancient pronunciation of this letter which is retained by the lower classes. Even the higher classes in Tinnevelly pronounce it even now as c and reference to the sūtras on Nūnmarapù of Tolkāppiyam mentioned above can clearly explain that his conjecture that it was the ancient pronunciation is really true.

As regards 'j' Dr. Caldwell says that "it is not used in correct Tamil; the same sound is sometimes admitted in the use of those Sanskrit derivatives in which the letter 'j' is found in Sanskrit". But in the spoken dialects of Tanjore, Trichinopoly, etc., it is freely used in pure Tamil words. Thus mañcal is pronounced as mañjal, kañci as kañji, etc.

1.46. A point about the cerebral consonants in Tamil and Sanskrit:—Dr. Caldwell says that 'Sanskrit has borrowed them from Dravidian languages for the following reasons:—(1) The lingual consonants are essential component elements of a large number of primitive Dravidian roots. (2) None of the lingual consonants has ever been discovered in any of the primitive languages which are related to Sanskrit. (3) Those consonants which Tamil has borrowed from Sanskrit within the period of existence of Dravidian literature have been greatly modified to accord with the Tamilian laws of sound and delicacy of ear. (4) Though Telugu has been more exposed to Sanskrit influence than Tamil, yet larger use is made of those sounds in Tamil than in Telugu'. (C. D. G. 148.)

Dr. Caldwell may be said to be right as regards his first two reasons. The third reason adduced by him seems to me not quite satisfactory; for Tamil evidently has to substitute some sounds for those of Sanskrit which are not found in it as th, d, dh. The fourth is not after all a very strong reason. Besides, there are four other points that stand in the way of accepting his theory:—

(1) The cerebral sounds in Sanskrit are produced by rounding the tongue and making it touch the roof of the palate, while in Tamil they were produced by the tip of the tongue touching the front of the palate without its being rounded at the time of Tolkāppiyaṇār, though they are now pronounced exactly in the same way as in Sanskrit. If they had been borrowed by Sanskrit from Tamil, I do not know why the position of their articulation was changed. (2) Besides, they are found in Rgvēda, the earliest

religious work in Sanskrit which is supposed to have been composed in the Indus Valley soon after the Arvans migrated there. (3) It has been enunciated by Fortunatov that r+dental remains unchanged, but in combination l and a following dental, the l disappeared, and the dental was lingualised. Dr. C. G. Uhlenbeck and other philologists except Brugman agree with his theory1 and hence think that the cerebrals are a natural development, Jesperson too agrees with the same theory from another standpoint as is seen from his following statement: "According to a theory which is very widely accepted, the Dravidian languages exerted a different influence on the Aryan languages when the Aryans first set foot on Indian soil, in making them adopt the cacuminal (or inverted) sounds d, t, n with dh, th which were not found in primitive Aryan, But even this theory does not seem to be quite proof against objections. It is easy to admit that natives accustomed to one place of articulation of their d, t, n will unconsciously produce the d, t, n of a new language they are learning in the same place; but then they will do it everywhere. Here, however, both Dravidian and Sanskrit possess pure dental d, t, n pronounced with the tip of the tongue touching the upper teeth, besides cacuminal d, t, n, in which it touches the gum or the front part of the hard palate. In Sanskrit we find that the cacuminal articulation occurs only under very definite conditions, chiefly under the influence of 'r'. Now, a trilled tongue-point 'r' in most languages, for purely physiological reasons which are easily accounted for, tends to be pronounced further back than ordinary dentals; and it is therefore quite natural that it should spontaneously exercise an influence on neighbouring dentals by drawing them back to its own point of articulation. This may have happened in India quite independently of the occurrence of the same sounds in other vernaculars?

Sanskrit Phonetics (English Edition by Dr. C. G. Uhlenbeck, section 44, p. 53).

It is worthy to be noted that it has already been mentioned that the Tamil t and n were not originally cacuminal but alveolar.

just as we find the same influence very pronouncedly in Swedish and in East Norwegian where d, t, n, s are cacuminal (supra-dental) in such words as bord, kort, barn, etc. According to Grandgent (Naure Sprachen, 2, 447) d in his own American English is pronounced further back than elsewhere before and after 'r' as in dry, hard; but in none of these cases need we conjure up an extinct native population to account for a perfectly natural development.¹

From what has been mentioned above it may not be possible for us to accept the statement of M. J. Vinson that the cerebrals in the Aryan Languages of the north have been developed relatively at a recent date².

- 1.47. Secondary consonant: 1.471. Ancient period: According to Tolkappiyanar there is no secondary consonant.
- 1.472. Medieval period: The author of Viracoliyam does not mention any secondary consonant. The author of Neminatam says that there are 16 secondary consonants consisting of 6 shortened voiceless consonants, 6 shortened nasals and shortened y, shortened l, shortened v and shortened l. The author of Nannul says that there are 42 orgalapetais and three shortened m4, each of the former having one matra and each of the latter having 1 of a matra. Wherever two similar consonants come together for the sake of metre as the two 'l's in 'koll leggin

Language, Its Nature, Development and Origin by Otto Jespersen, p. 196-7.

R cerebral En Dravidien, pp. 111 to 123. Journal Asiatique, Onzieme Serie Tome XIII, 1919.

Naña-na na-ma-na va-ya-la-la v-āytam
 Aļapān kuril-inai kurig-kī l-iţai-kaţai
 Mikalē y-avarrin kuri-y-ām vērē. (Na. 92.)

^{4.} Na-na mun-n-um vaskān micai-yu-ma-k-kurukum. (ibid. 96.)

Müngü-uyiralapü irantām neţil ongē
 Kurilötü ai-au-k kurukkam orgalapü
 Arai orgū-i u-k kurukkam äytam
 Käl kural ma&kän äytam māttirai. (ibid. 99.)

maruppup pōngaṇa' (they are like the horns of war-bulls) (P.N. 4, 4), he takes them as one secondary sound having one full mātrā. As regards the shortened m, as in pōnm he divides it into three according to the consonant which precedes or follows it, which is not quite necessary. cf. 1.222 supra.

1.473. Modern period: The author of Ilakkanavilakkam says that there are 11 orgalapetai and one makara-k-kugukkam and agrees with Nannülär as regards their quantity. Civañanamunivar agrees with Tolkappiyanar.

Though Tolkāppiyaṇār mentions shortened m and says it has 1 of a mātrā1, he has not mentioned it as a secondary consonant since it does not satisfy his definition of cārpeluttů. Cf. 1.22. supra. Orralapetai is only two similar consonants placed side by side for the sake of metre. Hence he has not mentioned it as a secondary consonant. The opinion of Tolkāppiyaṇār seems to be sound.

1.48. Initial, Final and Medial consonants in Tamil and Sanskrit words—Their Similarities and Dissimilarities:—Tolkāppiyaṇār says that, in Tamil, a conjunct consonant cannot stand at the beginning of a word², k, t, n, p, m can stand initially being followed by any vowel³, c except when followed by a, ai and au⁴, v except when followed by u, u, o and o⁵, when followed by a, c and o⁶ and y when followed only by

Arai-y-alapû kurukan makara m-uţaittê Icai-y-iţa n-arukun teriyin kālai. (Tol. E. 13.)

^{2.} Uyir-mey y-allana moli-muta 1-ākā. (ibid. 60.)

Ka-ta-na pa-ma-v-eŋu m-ā-v-ain-t-eluttum Ellā v-uyirotuñ cellumār mutalē. (ibid. 61.)

Cakara-k kiţaviyu m-avarrō r-arrō
 A-ai au-v-eņu mūŋralan kaţaiyō. (ibid. 62.)

Uā oð v-ennu nänkuyir
 Va en n-eluttotú varuta l-illai. (ibid. 63.)

Āe
 O-eŋu mū-v-uyir ñakūrat t-uriya. (ibid. 64.)

 \bar{a}^1 . Similarly, the only consonants that can stand as the final member are \tilde{n} , η , n, m, η , y, r, l, v, l and l^2 .

As regards the initial consonants, the author of Viracoliyam slightly differs from Tolkappiyanar. He allows \tilde{n} when followed by 'a' also, allows c when followed by all vowels and allows y when followed by a, d, u, \tilde{u} , \tilde{o} and au^3 . The author of Nannul agrees with the author of Viracoliyam and adds \dot{n} also to the list and one of its commentators gives $a\dot{n}\dot{n}anam$ as an example of the same; but $\dot{n}anam$ does not seem to occur as a separate word in literature.

As regards the final consonants, the author of Viracoliyam differs from Tolkappiyanar in omitting \(\tilde{n}, n \) and \(v \) from the list. This is perhaps due to the fact that such words as \(uri\tilde{n}, \) porum and \(tev \) became obsolete in his days. But Nannulär agrees here with Tolkappiyanar. In modern times, words beginning with \(t, y, \(r \) and \(l \) also are found; but all of them are words borrowed from other languages. E.g., \(tanka, \(tamaram, yantiram, yaman, raman, lankai, \) etc.

Besides it is said that all consonants except r and \underline{l} can be followed by the same consonants. Some of them may also be followed by other consonants. For instance \underline{t} can be followed

- Ā-v-ð t-allatú yakara mutalātú. (ibid. 65.)
- Na-na-na-ma na-ya ra-la va-la-la v-ennum A-p-pati n-one pulli y-iruti. (ibid. 78.)
- Paŋŋī r-uyirum ka-ca-ta-na pa-ma-va-ya
 Na-na-v-ī r-aintuyir mey-y-u moļi-mutal. (Na. 102.)
- 6 Āvi ña-ņa-na-ma-ņa ya-ra-la-va la-la-mey Cāyu m-ukara nālāru m-īrē. (Na. 107.)
- Mey-n-nilai cuţţi n-ellā v-eluţţum
 Tam-muţ rām-varūum ra-la-v-alan kaţaiyē. (Tol. E. 30.)

by k, c and p; \underline{r} by k, c and p; l by k, c, p, y and v; l by k; l by l and l and l and l and l by l and l

Here it may be noted that $Rgv\bar{e}da$ Prātiśākhya similarly gives a list showing the sounds in Sanskrit that can respectively stand as the initial and final members of single words and also those consonants which can follow other consonants:—The second and fourth of each varga, semi-vowels, fricatives except visarga and aspirate and the second varga do not stand as the final members of words². The Atharvavēda Prātiśākhya allows l also as the final³. When we compare this with the final sounds at the end of words in Tamil, we see that, of the sounds common to both the tongues Tamil allows \tilde{n}, y, r, l, v and l as finals, while Sanskrit does not and that Sanskrit allows l, \dot{n} , l, t and \dot{p} which Tamil does not.

Similarly the Rgvēda Prātišākhya says that jihvāmūlīya, upadhmānīya, visarga, anusvāra jh, n, t, th, d, dh, n cannot

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Ta-ra-la-la v-ennum pulli munnar-k
Ka-ca-pa v-ennu mü-v-elut t-uriya. (ibid. 23.)
Avarrul
La-la&kān munnar ya-va-v-un tönrum. (ibid. 24.)
Na-ña-na-na ma-na-v-enum pulli munnar-t
Tatta m-icaikal-ottana nilaiyē. (ibid. 25.)
Avrrul
Na-na&kān munnar-k
Ka-ca-ña-pa ma-ya-v-a-v v-ēlu m-uriya. (ibid. 26.)
Na-na-ma-va v-ennum pulli munnar
Ya&kā nirran mey-per r-anrē. (ibid. 27.)
Ma&kān pulli-mun va-v-v-un tönrum. (ibid. 28.)
Va-ra-la v-ennum pulli munnar
Mutalā k-eluttu nakaramotū tönrum. (ibid. 9.
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Üşmäntahstharsöşma-caküravargü nüntam yüntyanyatra visarjaniyät. (R. V. P. 12. 1.)

^{3.} A. V. P. 1. 5.

Classical Sanskrit allows jh as an initial member. cf. jhaţiti.

Again the same Prātišākhya says that, in the middle of words, the second, third and fourth sounds of the five vargas are not followed by the same sounds². But this may appear to be wrong since such words as $lajj\bar{a}$, $majj\bar{a}$ are found in classical Sanskrit. But it seems they are not found in Rgvēda. l is not followed by r^3 ; v is not followed by the first four sounds of each of the five vargas, but is preceded by them⁴; the fricatives are not followed by the second or fourth sound of each varga⁵; r is not followed by r^6 ; h does not follow an explosive⁷; y is not followed by l or explosives, but is preceded by them⁸.

Here the points to be noted are the following:—Tamil allows all explosives except t and n after y while Sanskrit does not. On the other hand, Tamil does not allow y after the stops, while Sanskrit allows it. But both Sanskrit and Tamil agree in not allowing r to be followed by r, t to be followed by r and v to be followed by k, c, t, t and t.

It seems to me that Tolkāppiyanār has followed the Prātiśākhyas here also as in the case of mentioning initial and final vowels.

1.5. Secondary sounds which are classed by Tamil grammarians neither as vowels nor as consonants:—1.51. Ancient period: Tolkāppiyanār mentions āytam as a secondary sound but does not say whether it is a vowel or a consonant.

Rkāra-ţkārāu paramardhamūşmaņām nādim takārād-avarē ca sapta. (R. V. P. 12, 2.)

Nānyēna mad hyamāḥ sparšavargāḥ saṃyujyantē.
 (ibid. 12. 3.)

^{3.} Na lakārēna rēphah. (ibid. 12, 4.)

^{4.} Sparsair-vakūro na parair-anuttamaih. (ibid. 12, 5.)

^{5.} Tathū tēṣām ghōṣiṇah sarvathōṣmabhih. (ibid. 12, 6.)

Na rēpho rēphēņa. (ibid. 12, 8.)

^{7.} Na sparšāir-ūsmā prathamah parassan. (ibid. 12, 10.)

^{8.} Lakāra-sparšāir na yakāra uttaraiķ. (ibid. 12, 14

ĀYTAM 65

- 1.52. Medieval period:—The author of Viracoliyam mentions none in this category. The author of Neminatam mentions 217 secondary sounds under this category consisting of 216 vowel-consonants and one 'shortened aytam'. The author of Nannul adds the unshortened aytam to the above list, and he divides it into eight. I think it would have been much better if he had divided it into six according as it is succeeded by one of k, c, t, t, p and r without adding two more as a in aatu and aakatiya where it evidently precedes one of the above six consonants.
- 1.53. Modern period.—The author of Ilakkanavilakkam agrees with Nannulär except in discarding the shortened āytam, on the authority of Tolkāppiyanār who has not stated that the āytam, which is substituted for l and l in the sandhi al+tiņai=asrinai and mul+tītū=mustītū, is shortened.
- 1.54. It has already been mentioned in 1.222 supra that it is a mistake to have included vowel-consonants among secondary sounds and that they are not at all unitary sounds. As regards the shortened āytam, I fully agree with the author of Ilakkanavilakkam. Hence of the secondary sounds which are classed by the Tamil grammarians neither as vowels nor as consonants that which is to be dealt with here is only āytam.
- 1.55. 'Aytam':—1.551. In the ancient period it appears that this was not included in the alphabet between vowels and consonants, since Tolkäppiyanär says in the first sütra 'Akara mutal nakaraviruväy (eluttu) muppaten pa' (which means thirty letters from a to n) and mentions äytam in the second sütra. But in the medieval period, it was included between them as it is now, since the author of Viracöliyam says so¹.
- Dr. Caldwell has written it along with the vowels and mentions in page 353 that it is 'a sort of guttural'; but whether it is a vowel or a consonant or neither must be carefully considered.
- 1.552. Ancient period:—Tolkāppiyanār says that āytam is one of the secondary sounds and appears in the middle of words

Arinta-v-eluttam-mun pannirantāvika lāna-kam-mun Piranta-patinettu mey-natu-v-antam...... (V. C. 1.)

after a short vowel and before a voiceless consonant followed by a vowel¹, and also its place of production is determined by that of the consonant in whose company it is². It is classed by him neither as a vowel nor as a consonant. This is perhaps due to Pāṇini not having classed jihvāmūlīya or upadhmānīya as a vowel or a consonant.

1.553. Medieval and Modern periods:-Neminatam says that it is one of the 31 primary sounds3; but this is wrong. In Nannul, the grammar of the medieval period and in Ilakkanavilakkam of the modern period4 it is said to be an open sound and its place of production is the head5. This is quite contrary to what is said in Tolkappiyam. How can it be an open sound? Its pronunciation is just like that of the spirant6 jilrvāmūlīva in kah karöti when it is followed by k, and the spirant upadhmānīya in kah phalati when it is followed by p. In Tamil it can come even before c, t, t and t which is not the case in Sanskrit. must be pronounced by allowing the air to reach that part of the vocal organs where the following consonant is produced and suddenly arresting it so that a part of the air may escape with friction as in the case of fricatives. Hence Tolkappiyanar says that its place of articulation is that of the letter in whose company it is. This must evidently be the consonant that follows it. This statement is almost similar to what is said in the Taittiriya Prātiśākhya as regards ś, s, s, h, jihvāmūlīya and upadhmānīya7.

Kuriyatan munna r-āyta-p pulli Uyirotu punarnta-val lāran micaittē. (Tol. E. 38.)

Cārntu-vari n-allatū tamakkiyal pila-v-enat
 Tērntu-veļi p paţutta v-ēnai mūngun
 Tattañ cārpir pirappoţu civani
 Otta kāţciyir gam-m-iyal p-iyalum. (ibid. 101.)

^{3.} Avi y-akara-muta l-ārirantā m-āytam-itai Mēvum...... (N. N. E. 1.)

^{4.} Aytanen cecaiyi y ankan tiyalum. (I. V. 13.)

^{5.} Aytak kiţan-talai y-ankā muyarci. (Na. 87.)

^{6.} cf. Uttare astā üşmāņaķ. (R. V. P. i. 12.)

^{7.} Pare sad Esmanah. (Tai. P. i, 9.) and Sparsasthanesu Esmana

Thus in pronouncing & in eskû, kascû, musfîtû, astû, aspōtam, kasrîtû, the air must respectively be allowed to reach the soft palate, middle of the hard palate, the front portion of the hard palate, the teeth, the lips and the top of the hard palate. This is also borne out by the fact that it is replaced by a consonant similar to its succeeding consonant; musfîtû is changed to mutfîtû, kasrîtû to karrîtû, orupstû+oprû to orupattonrû, and so on. Besides, one can see from euphony in the expression kūrra-k-kosrēr (Pattu. 236, 633) & cannot be guttural, but only a spirant produced where r is produced. It is therefore a kind of arrested voiceless spirant resembling in its sound the first part of the affricatæ reversed and hence it was not in the ancient and medieval periods a guttural as Dr. Caldwell thinks, nor is it an open sound produced at the head as many of the grammarians of the medieval and modern periods thinks.

But it is now pronounced in all cases in the same way as if it were before 'k'. It is evident however that it does not conform to etymology; for it is not generally possible to have a guttural spirant or fricative before a palatal, cerebral, dental or labial consonant. The forms $mn \& fit \hat{u}$ and $ka\& fit \hat{u}$ are respectively formed by the combination of two words $mn! + tit \hat{u}$ and $kal + tit \hat{u}$; in the former case the initial t of $tit \hat{u}$ is cerebralised by the influence of the preceding cerebral l, and l is correspondingly changed to & by being assimilated to t. Can the sound assimilated to a cerebral be a guttural? Similarly in the latter case the

ānupārvyēņa. (Tai. P. 2 44.) and Jihvāmūlīyah kavargasthānē upadhmānīyah pavargasthānē. (Tai. P. 2, 44, Comm.)

Ayta nilaiyalum varai-nilai y-inyē Takaram varūun kālai y-āna. (Tol. E. 400.)

Takaram varu-vali y-āyta nilaiyalum Pukarin renmanār pulamai yörē. (ibid. 370.)

Orupa& tāti-mun n-ongu-muta l-onpān
 Ennu m avai-y-ūr pigavu m-cytin
 Āyta m-aliya-v-ān tākun ta-v-ē. (Na. 196.)

Ayta-k k-iţan-talai y-ankā muyarci
 (Na. 87.)

initial t of litii is changed to cerebral \underline{r} by the influence of the preceding l and consequently l is changed to \underline{a} by being assimilated to \underline{r} ; nowhere is a guttural seen in Tamil words before $\underline{r}\underline{r}$.

I cannot definitely find out how and when this unetymological pronunciation of & came into existence. But I may say that it may have come after the 8th or 9th century A. D., since the word iydeludi¹ tor i&deludi is found in line 152 of the Vēļvikuḍi Grant published in Epigraphica Indica, Vol. XVII Part VII which shows that & before d was pronounced like y at that time. If the dental spirant is carelessly pronounced, it may almost resemble 'y'. But since in most of the simple words where it occurs it is followed by the guttural, possibly the guttural sound was generalised throughout². Owing to this modern pronunciation of &, one symbol 'k' is being used by the Tamil Lexicon of the Madras University³.

Another point deserves to be noted as regards the origin of aylam. It is not found in Telugu and Canarese, nor in pure

2. a&kam a&karam a&kal a&kû
a&kēņam a&kāŋ a&tû a&p**ð**tam
i&tû e&kam e&kû ka&cû
ka&rû Compound words like mu&ţītû, ka&r**ī**tû, etc.

i. The word in the grant in Tamil script should be @ica@@.

I think it would have been pronounced then as iyteluti though it is transliterated in the Epigraphica Indica as iydeludi.

^{3.} Its definition in the Tamil Lexicon of the University of Madras that it is 'the 13th letter of the Tamil alphabet occurring only after a short initial letter and before a hard consonant as a&kam, and pronounced sometimes as a vowel and sometimes as a consonant is defective in two ways:—'after a short initial letter' must be changed to 'after a short vowel'; 'and pronounced sometimes as a vowel and sometimes as a consonant' must be changed to 'and is a fricative; but mentioned by the Tamil Grammarians neither as a vowel nor as a consonant'. Hence Dr. Beschi's statement 'āytam-engatu iṭukuri-p-peyar, mutaleļuttu muppatin ongallatu-vērāy nigralāņum uyirpēla-t tanittolivātumāy meypēla uyir-ērapperātumāy mutal-eļuttāntanmai eytāmaiyā num iru-maruhkum varum-eļuttai cārntolittalānum cārpeļuttin ongā-yina' deserves to be noted. (To. V. 13, Comm.)

Malayāļam words. Even in Tamil it is not an indispensable letter since it can be replaced by its succeeding letter. Besides, its sound before k and p respectively agrees with that of visarga before a guttural and a labial (i.e.) jihvāmūlīya and upadhmānīya. Pandit M. Raghava Aiyangar writes in his article on 'Tolkāppiyanārum Pulliyeluttum' in page 153 Vol. XXV of Centamil published by the Tamil Sangam at Madura that in ancient times aytam was represented by visarga. Hence it seems to me that the visarga which is used before a guttural and a labial as jihvāmūlīya and upadhmānīya was borrowed from Sanskrit and extended in its use before all the voiceless consonants in Tamil though Dr. Caldwell says that it is a peculiar Tamil letter. (C. D. G. p. 353.)

I am glad to find recently that M. J. Vinson has written in 19161 that the extraordinary form of dytam is related to the visarga of which it is, withot doubt, only an adaptation, though he seems to be confronted with the difficulty from the statement of Tamil grammarians on the authority of Nannul that its origin is in the head and is pronounced with the mouth fully open. This clearly shows that the Tamil Pandits with whom he came in contact with had ignored Tolkappiyam. If they had thought of that work, they would certainly have told the learned professor that its origin depends upon the sounds in whose company it appears (Tol. E. 101) and then he might easily have inferred that, since it follows a vowel and is followed by a voiceless explosive consonant, it could not be a completely open sound. Besides if he had noted that aytam was represented by visarga in earlier days2, it would have strengthened his inference to a considerable extent.

He derives the word aytam from the Sanskrit word ayudha and also states that he did not know any example of aytam out-

Sur un caractere Singulier Dans L'alphabet Tamoul in Journal Asiatique Onzieme Serie Tome VII, 1916, p. 343.

Tolkāppiyanārum Pulliyeluttum by Pandit M. Raghava Aiyangar, p. 153, Centamil, Vol. XXV.

side the grammars; the former point is disproved by the opinion of the late Mr. R. Swaminatha Aiyar noted below. As for the latter, many examples are found in Sangam works. cf. pa&ruli maṇaliṇum (P. N. 9, 11.): i&tiyām iranta paricil a&tirulin (P. N. 145. 8): e&kuru viluppuṇ (P. N. 233. 7.): yāṅka&tuṇṭeṇa (P. N. 319. 4).

Similarly, the Rev. Dr. Pope is of opinion that 'it may be an imitation of Sanskrit visarga and it is used in poetry only.' (cf. P. H. T. L. p. 13.) But now it is used in prose also. For instance, the word a&tû and i&tû are used if they are followed by words commencing with a vowel, as a&tû inkê illai, etc.

The late Mr. R. Swaminatha Aiyar said in one of his lectures delivered in 1925 under the auspices of the Teachers' Guild, Madras, that there is coincidence between the term cārpeļuttū applied to āytam in Tamil Grammar and the term parāśritān applied to jihvāmūlīya and upadhmānīya in Pāṇinīya-śikṣā, and hence the word āytam is the tamilised form of āśrita.

2. SANDHI.

- 2.1. 'Avoidance of hiatus and assimilation are the leading principles on which the rules of sandhi are based'.
- 2.11. Ancient Period: 2.111. Classification: Tolkāppiyaŋār classifies the nature of sandhi into two kinds, one having change in sounds and the other having no change². The former is of three kinds:—meypiritātal³ or assimilation, mikutal or insertion and kunral or elision⁴ & ⁵. And the latter is called iyalpū. As regards insertion, it is a peculiarity with Tamil, as Tolkāppiyanār
 - M. V. G. 20.
 - 2. Avarrul
 Nirutta colli n Trā keluttotu
 Kurittu-varu kilavi mutalelut t-iyaiya-p
 Peyarotu peyarai-p punarkkun kālum
 Peyarotu tolilai-p punarkkun kālum
 Tolilotu peyarai-p punarkkun kālum
 Tolilotu tolilai-p punarkkun kālum
 Mūnrē tiripita n-onrē y-iyalpena
 Āiskan nānkē molipuna r-iyalpē. (Tol. E. 109).
 - 3. Assimilation and substitution are both taken as assimilation.
 - Avaitām
 Meypiri tātaņ mikutal kuņral-eņrū
 Iv-v-eņa molipa tiriyu m-ārē. (Tol. E. 110.)
- 5. It seems possible that the classification of sandhi into four and their names are adapted mostly from those found in Prātiśākhyas. Meypiritātal, mikutal, kunral and iyalpū respectively are close translation of the words vikāra or varņavikāra, āgama, lāpa and prakṛti which are found in the following quotations:—

Varņasya vikāra l**ö**pāu (Tai. P. i. 56.) Vināś**ö** l**ö**paḥ (Tai. P. i. 27.) Aḥkāra āgama vikāri l**ö**piņām (Tai. p. i. 23.) Tamiti vikāraḥ (S. Y. V. P. i. 133.) says, that the cāriyai or the flexional increments are generally inserted between the base of the noun and the case suffix¹ on the one hand, and between the verbal base and the verbal termination on the other. He then classifies sandhi into vērrumai-ppuņarcci or case-relation sandhi and alvaļi-p-puņarcci or non-caserelation sandhi according as the two words which undergo change in sandhi stand in case-relation to each other or not.²

2.112. Treatment of the same by Tolkāppiyaŋār: He treats in urupiyal the cāriyai or flexional increments that are inserted between the base of the noun and the case-suffix and in the latter half of puṇariyal, the special changes that take place in sandhi between the final member of the base and the initial member of the flexional increment; in tokai-marapi, he generally deals with the changes which the initial member of the 'following word'

Tenetyāgamaḥ (S. Y. V. P. i, 137.)
Varņasyādaršanam /ðpaḥ (S. Y. V. P. i, 141.)
Prakī tyā padāntīyaḥ (S. Y. V. P. iii, 90.)
Pragī hyašca prakī tyā (A. V. P. iii, 33.)
Prakī tyantūḥ pādamavyaparē (P. 6. 1, 115.)
Adaršanam /ðpaḥ (P. 1, 1, 60.)

Lēpāgama varņavikārajītēhi samyak šabdāñ jānāti (M. B. 1 1 15.)

As regards the term kunral, Tolkāppiyanār seems to have incorporated the meaning of lēpa as vināša as mentioned in Taittiriya Prātišākhya and not adaršanam as mentioned in Pāṇini's Aṣṭādhyāyī or Sukla Yajurvēda Prātišākhya, and as regards meypiritātal, he has translated the word vikāra or varņavikāra found in Prātišākhyas and not ūdēša mentioned in Pāṇini's sūtras in 'ādēša pratyayayāh (P. 8. 3. 59.).

 Nigutta collun kugittu-zaru kilaziyum Atai-yotu tönginum punar-nilai-k k-uriya, (Tol. E. 111.)

It seems to me that this is due to making the syllable containing the oblique case suffix so heavy that it must be clearly pronounced.

- Vērrumai kuritta puņar-moļi nilaiyum Vērrumai y-alvaļi-p puņār-moļi nilaiyum Eļuttē cāriyai y-āyiru paņpiņ Oļukkal valiya puņarum kālai. (Tol. E. 113.)
- If sandhi takes place between two words, the former is called by Tamil Grammarians, nilaimoli and the latter, varumoli. I have, in

undergoes, and the final member of the 'standing word,' etc. In uyir-mayankiyal and pulli-mayankiyal he respectively deals with the sandhi which takes place when the final members of the standing words are vowels or consonants. Since kurriyalukaram is a peculiarity of Dravidian languages and the changes that take place in sandhi when the final member of the standing word is u are different from those that take place when it is u, the latter are separately treated in the last section.

When two words, one ending in a vowel and the other beginning with a vowel come together, it is stated that no one is prevented from writing between them an utam-patu-mey or an intervocalic consonant that suits them. This shows that it was not compulsory in his time to insert y, v, etc. between two vowels as it was at the time of the later grammarians. This is borne out by the absence of utampatumey in some places in some inscriptions? & 3. Nor does Tolkappiyanar state what such utampatumey is.

I will now deal in detail, with (1) the inserted flexional suffixes, (2) the changes in sandhi in such cases, (3) the changes which the initial consonant of the following word undergoes (4) the changes when the final member of the standing word is a vowel other than kurriyalnkaran (5) the changes when the final member of the standing word is a consonant and (6) the changes when the final member of the standing word is 'û'.

2.1121. The Inserted flexional suffixes4.

this thesis, translated them literally as standing word and following word respectively.

- Ellä molikku m-uyir-varu valiyë
 Utam-paţu mey-y-i n-uruvu-kolal varaiyār. (Tol. E. 141.)
- Note that is the compound mā-irumperum buņar kāviri, there is no uṭampaṭumey between 'ā' of mā and 'i' of irum. (1. A. Vol. 22 p. 70-M, M. P.)
- Malar mangai-odu (line 46); pū viri-um (line 93); kāviri-in (line 93); maņi-imaikkum (line 81) of Ep. I. Vol. XVII, Part VII, V. G.
- The stars dealing with these are found in urupival-Stars 174-203.

Final Member of the Base. General rule:

Flexional increment inserted.

a, ā, u, ū, č, au Exceptions: a in palla ā of interrogative vā a & a (of names of trees) u in atu, itu, utu

in (e.g. vila + ai = vila - v - in - ai) varru also (e.g. pallavarrai)

Do. (e.g. yāvarrai) attu also (in the 7th case) an also, when the final u is dropped. (e.g. atu + ai = atu +an+ai=atanai)

General rule: ai of avai, ivai, uvai ai of interrogative vā

i of ni

varru also (e.g. avaiyarrai) Do. (e.g. yāvarrai)

i is shortened to i and n is inserted (e.g. ninnai)

ñ, n v of av, iv, uv v of tev

General rule:

172

m of num

on (e.g. kō onai)1 in (e.g. uriñ + ai = uriñinai) varru (e.g. avarrai)2 in (e.g. tevvinai)

> attu and sometimes in. (e.g. maram + ai = marattai; uruminai) no insertion; but m is doubled. (e.g. num-m-ai)

m of tam, nam and yam

³no insertion; but ā is shortened in the first two cases and va is changed to e in the third case and m is doubled. (e.g. tammai, nammai, emmai)

m of ellam

varru when it refers to neuter nouns and nam when it refers to uvartinas, before the casesuffix and um after the case-(e.g. ellām + ai = ellāvarraiyum or ell ānammaiyum)

This is a case where hiatus is allowed.

^{2.} av. iv. uv are neuter demonstrative plurals.

This shows that the accent is possible on the case-suffix.

m of ellärum (3rd person) and of ellïrum (2nd person) tam and num respectively; but the final um is taken after casesuffix. (e.g. ellārum + ai = ellārtammaiyum, ellīrum + ai = ellīrummaiyum)

g of tān and yān

no increment; but ā is shortened to a, yā is changed to e and y is doubled. (e.g. tannai, ennai)

n of *alan* and *pulan* l of *ē*l

attu or iņ aņ (e.g. ēļaņai)1

General rule:

ii

in (e.g. nākiņai)

Exceptions: û following a long vowel

generally no insertion; but the final consonant is doubled.

(e.g. yāṭū+ai=yāṭṭai: sometimes yāṭṭṇai also.)

i at the end of words denoting any (e.g. ouranai.)
number.

й in orupa&tû, irupa&tû, etc. äŋ, and a&tû is dropped. (e.g. orupāṇai)

u of yātu, astu, istu & ustu. ay, but & is dropped (e.g. yātayai, ataņai)

is at the end of words denoting No insertion; but 'ii' with the directions before the seventh preceding consonant is droppeds.
 case-suffix, ed. (e.g. vaṭakkū+kaṇ=va-takkan)

In the last sutra he says that, if other increments are used in literature, we will have to take them also.

- 2.1122. The changes which the flexional increments undergo in Sandhi:2
- (a) i of in is optionally dropped after ā. (e.g. ā+in+ai=āṇai; also āviṇai.)

The original \$\bar{e}_l\$ meaning seven is now pronounced by adding \$\bar{u}\$ at the end as \$\bar{e}_l\bar{u}\$, although \$\bar{u}\$ cannot follow \$\bar{l}\$ according to Tol. E. 36.

The sūtras under this heading are all found in punariyal of Tolkāppiyam (121, 123 to 127, 129 to 132 and 134).

- (b) v of varru is dropped after avai, ivai, uvai. (e.g. avai+varru+ai=avai-y-arrai.)
- (c) n of in is changed to r before kn, the fourth case-suffix.
 (e.g. viļa-v-in-kn = viļavirkū.)
- (d) n of ān is changed to r when it is preceded by a word denoting star and is followed by a word beginning with a voiceless consonant. (e.g. parani+ān+kontān = parani-y-ār-kontān.)
- (e) a of attu is dropped after a. (e.g. makam + attu + kai= maka + attu + kai= makattu-k-kai.)
- (f) i of ikku is dropped after i and ai (e.g. āṭikku-k-koṇṭāṇ;
 cittiraikku-k-kontān)
- (g) ku of akku is dropped if it is followed by a voiceless consonant (e.g. tamil + akku + kūttū = tamil-ak-kūttū)
- (h) m of am is assimilated to \dot{n} , \ddot{n} and n when it is respectively followed by k, c, and t.
- (i) m of am is dropped if it is followed by a nasal or a semi-vowel. (e.g. pulivañeri.)
 - (j) in is dropped before the case suffix in.
- (k) The consonant preceding attu and varru is dropped and that which follows is doubled if it is a voiceless consonant. (e.g. kalam + attu + kurai = kalattu-k-kurai.)
- 2.1123. The Changes which the initial consonant of the following word undergoes.
- ¹(a) t and n which follow l and n are respectively changed to r and n (e.g. kal+tītů=ka&rītů; pon+nanrů=ponnanrů, etc.)
- $^{2}(b)$ t and u which follow u and l are respectively changed to t and u. (e.g. $man + tit\dot{u} = mantit\dot{u}$; $man + nant\dot{u} = mannant\dot{u}$, etc.)
- 2.1124. The Changes when the final member of the Standing word is a vowel other than '\u00fc', 3.
 - La-ŋa veŋa-varūum pulţi muŋŋar-t Tana v-eŋa-varir ra-ŋa-v-ā kum-m-ē. (Tol. E. 150.)
 - 2. Na-la-v-en pulli-mun ta na-v-ena-t :on tum. (ibid. 151)
- The sūtras under this heading are found in uyirmayankiyal of Tolkāppiyam (sūtras 204 to 296).

Final member of the standing word.	Initial member of the following word.	Change in sandhi.
	· A '	
Non-case-relation sandhi	:	
a (of nouns)	k, c, t, p	k, c, t, p are respectively inserted. (e.g. vila+ kuritii=vila-k-kuritii.)
 a (of verbal participles, particles denoting comparison, ena and āńka and demonstra- tive roots) 		k, c, t, p are respectively inserted. (e.g. a-k-kor-ran.)
a (demonstrative root)	\tilde{n} , n , m	 n, n, m are respectively inserted (e.g. a-ñ-ñāṇ.)
Do.	03 1100	v is inserted (e.g. $a+y\bar{a}\underline{l}$ = $a-v-y\bar{a}\underline{l}$.)
Do.	any vowel	v is inserted (e.g. a+ilai =a-v-vilai)
Do.	Do.	a is also lengthened in verse (e.g. a + irutinai- yum = a-y-irutinaiyum
Case-relation sandhe:		
a	k, c, t, p	k, c, t, p are respectively inserted.
a (of names of trees)	do.	n, n, n, m are respectively inserted. (e. g. viļa + kōţū = viļankōţū)
a (of maka, the name of a tree.)	f do.	The flexional increment in or attu is inserted. (e.g. m a k a + k a i = makaviņkai or makattukkai.)
	A'	
Non-case-relation sandh	i:	
ā (of nouns)	k, c, t, p	k, c, t, p are respectively inserted. (e.g. tārā-k- kaţıtii.)
ā (of verbal participles)	do.	Do. (e. g. иппа-с-сец- rān.)

ā (of nouns when com- pounded with another noun in ummaittokai or dvanda compound)	k, c, t, p;	¹ a with one of k, c, t, p is respectively inserted. (e.g. irā-a-p-pakal.)
Case-relation-sandhi:		
ā ,	do.	k, c, t, p are respectively inserted. (e.g. tārā+ kāl=tārā-k-kāl etc.)
ā (in words whose vowei previous to the final ā is short or in words of one syllable.)	do.	² a with one of k, c, t, p is respectively inserted (e.g. palā-a-k-kōṭii.)
Exceptions:		
ā (of nilā)	do.	The flexional increment attu is inserted. (e.g. nilā + kontān = nilā + attu + kontān =
00	3 M300	nilāttukkontān.)
ā (of irā)	n as do sol	Only k, c, t, p are respec- tively inserted. (e. g. irā+ koṇṭāṇ = irā-k- koṇṭāṇ.)
ā (of the word ā)	þī	p is inserted and the final I is shortened to
	.1.	i. (e.g. $\tilde{a} + p\tilde{i} = \tilde{a}ppi$.)
Case-relation sandhi:	- 2	
i	k, c, t, p	k, c, t, p are respectively inserted. (e.g. kili+ kāl=kili-k-kāl.)
i (of vaļi, paņi (season))	do.	Flexional increments attu & in are inserted.
i (of uti (tree))	do.	 n, n, m are respectively inserted.
i (of puļi (tree))	do.	Flexional increment am is inserted.

^{1 &}amp; 2. These are cases where hiatus is allowed; but some Tamilians seem to think that the a after \(\bar{a}\) denotes that \(\bar{a}\) has 3 m\(\bar{a}\) tr\(\bar{a}\)s and as such is not a separate sound; but here in this s\(\bar{a}\) trace the expression '\(akaramikum\)\(\bar{a}\)' is found. Here \(mikum\) shows that it is a separate sound according to Tolk\(\bar{a}\)ppiyan\(\bar{a}\)r. But now \(a\) and \(\bar{a}\) are pronounced only as \(\bar{a}\)3.

i (of puli (not denoting tree))	k, c, t, p	k, c, t, p or n, n, n, m are respectively insert- ed.
 i (at the end of words denoting star) 	do. of verbs.	Flexional increment āṇ is inserted. (e.g. paranı + koṇṭāṇ paraṇi-āṇ + koṇṭāṇ = paraṇi-y- āṛ-koṇṭāṇ.)
 i (at the end of words denoting month) 	do.	Flexional increment ikku is inserted. (e.g. āṭi+ koṇṭāṇ = āṭi+ ikku+ koṇṭāṇ = āṭikku-k- koṇṭāṇ.)
Non-case-relation sandhi	:	9.56
 i (of ini, ani, verbal participle, and de- monstrative root) 	k, c, t, p	k, c, t, p are respectively inserted. (e. g. ini ÷ kontān = ini-k-kontān.)
 i (of inri, verbal partici- ple) 	in verse	pinrupurkai where in- ru is found for inri.)
i (of demonstrative)	ñ, n, m	n, n, m are respectively inserted.
Do	y, v, & any vowel.	v is inserted. (e.g. $i=y\bar{a}\underline{l}=i-v-y\bar{a}\underline{l}$.)
	11'	

I (both in non-case-relation sandhi and in case-relation sandhi) agrees with the final a.

 Exceptions:

i (of $n\bar{i}$, $p\bar{i}$) k, c, t, p No change. (e.g. $n\bar{i} + ku\underline{r}iyai = n\bar{i}ku\underline{r}iyai$, etc.) i (of $m\bar{i}$) Do. No change, or k, c, t, p are respectively inserted. (e.g. $m\bar{i} + k\bar{o}l = m\bar{i}k\bar{o}l$ or $m\bar{i}kk\bar{o}l$, etc.)

This change of i to u may be due to the influence of the initial u in uppù or u in purkai, in which case this is an illustration of harmonic sequence of vowels.

I is shortened, n is ini (of ni when it takes k, c, t, p serted after it. the flexional incre $n\bar{\imath} + kai = ninkai.$ ment in) (D'

In non-case-relation sandhi it mostly agrees with the final a with the following exceptions:-When atu, itu and utu are followed by verbs beginning with k, c, t, p, it has no change; but when followed by aurii in verse, u of atu, etc., is changed to ā. (e.g. atāanramma.)

Even in case-relation sandhi, it mostly agrees with the final a with the following exception:-When atu, itu and utu are followed by k, c, t, p, the flexional increment ip is inserted.

· U'

Both in case-relation sandhi and non-case-relation sandhi ß agrees with a, i.e., if it is followed by k, c, t, p, one of them is inserted. അക്കാദമി

Exceptions:

- (a) When its preceding vowel is short or when it is the final of a single-syllabled word, n is inserted in addition to one of k, c, t, p. (e. g. ufū+kurai=ufūu-k-kurai.)
- (b) After \$\vec{u}\$ in the word \$p\vec{u}\$, the nasal also is optionally inserted. (e.g. pū-k-koți and pū-n-koți.)
- (c) After ū in āṭūu and makaṭūu, the flexional increment in is optionally added. (e.g. āţūu-v-in-kai.)

Initial member of Final member of the Gange in standing word the following word. sandhi. . E . e (at the end of verbs of k, c, t, p k, c, t, p are respectively inserted. 2nd person) Do. No change. (e. g. čekone (at the end of nouns added for emphasis) tān.) (Fe

General rule:

k, c, t, p ē (both in case-relation k, c, t, p are respectively and non-case-relation inserted. (e.g. $c\bar{e} + ka$ titii = cē-k-kaţitii, etc.) sandhi)

Exceptions:		
 e (at the end of nouns to denote negation, interrogation, num- ber) 	k, c, t, p	No change, (e.g. yāṇē- koṇṭēṇ in the sense yāṇkoṇṭilēṇ, etc.)
ē (of the word cē denot- ing a tree)	D 0.	Corresponding nasal is inserted. (e.g. cēńkōţů.)
ē (of the word cē denot- ing pe <u>rr</u> am)	Do.	Flexional increment in is inserted. (e.g. cē-v- iŋ-kōṭù.)
	'AI'	P wolur)
Case-relation Sandhi:		
ai (at the end of nouns)	k, c, t, p	 k, c, t, p are respectively inserted. (e. g. yāṇai + kōṭù=yāṇai-k-kōṭù, etc.)
Exceptions:	0.000	
ai (at the end of words paṇai, arai, āvirai)	2 Dola/) (aan32)	Flexional increment am is inserted. (e.g. paṇa) + kāy = paṇai + am + kāy = paṇan kāy.)
ai (at the end of paṇai followed by the word aṭṭū)	*	ai changes to āa. (e.g. paṇāaṭṭù.)
ai (at the end of the word malai)	Do.	attu is inserted. (e. g. malai-y-attu-k-kontān.)
 ai (at the end of words denoting month and star) 	Do.	Flexional increment ikku is inserted. (e.g. citti- rai + koṇṭāṇ = cittiraik- ku-k-koṇṭāṇ.)
	'Ö'	
Non-case-relation Sandhi:	5350	
\tilde{o} (at the end of nouns)	k, c, t, p	k, c, t, p are respectively inserted. (e.g. ō-k- kaṭitù.)
 (at the end of nouns denoting negation, interrogation or doubt) 	Do.	No change.
ō (in case - relation sandhi)	Do.	o and one of k, c, t, p are inserted. (e.g. ō-o-k- kaṭumai.)

o (followed by the word 1No change. (e.g. kō-vil) il, kō-y-il.) ō (at the end of some k, c, t, p Flexional increment on words in literature) is inserted. (e. g. kōon-kai.) · AU' 3 au (both in case-relation k, c, t, p u and one of k, c, t, p are inserted, (e. g. sandhi and non-casekau + katitu = kauv-urelation sandhi) k-katitii.) 2.1125. The Changes when the Final Member of the Standing word is a Consonant.2 Final Member of the Initial Member of Change in standing word the following word Sandhi Nasal h, c, 1, p Corresponding nasal is substituted. (e.

yā or ñā.

No change. (e. g. maņ +yātta = maņyātta, etc.)

rankuritu.)

maram + kuritu = ma-

Any consonant preceded by a long vowel

11, 11

Generally dropped. (e. g. kōļ+nanrū=kō-nanrū.)

- Iļampūraņar gives kāyil for the example and Naccinārkkiniyar kāyil; but it seems to me that kā-il ought to have been the example referred to by Tolkāppiyanār since he uses the word iyarkai in the sūtra and in his opinion (Tol. E. 141) the insertion of uṭampaṭumey is only optional.
- The rules noted here are mostly found in Tolkäppiyam, Eluttatikäram, Pullimayankiyal, except the first four which are found in Tokaimarapu, 144, 147, 161.
 - 3. This is a clear case of assimilation.
- This generally happens when the initial member of the following word is a consonant.

Any consonant preceded by a short vowel		The final consonant is doubled. (e. g. pon+ akai=ponnakal.)
#, n, n, m, l, n (of verbal nouns in both kinds of sandhi)	k, c, t, p	² u and one of k, c, t, p are inserted. (e. g. uriñ+kaţitù=uriñ-u- k-kaţitù.)
ñ, n, n, m, l, n (of ver- bal nouns in both kinds of sandhi)	ñ, n, m, v Ņ	³ u is inserted. (e. g. uriñ-u-ñā <u>nr</u> atů.)
n (in case-relation sandhi)	k, c, t, p	Changed to f (e.g. man + kuṭam = maṭkuṭam.)
Exceptions:		10.000000000000000000000000000000000000
n (of the words an and pen)	Do.	No change. (e.g. āņkai.)
អ (of an denoting tree)	19. P ol ₂₀)	Flexional increment am is inserted. (e.g. āṇ+ kōṭù=āṇ-aṅ-kōṭù.)
# (of en denoting food in non-case-relation sandhi)	Do.	Optionally changes to t (e.g. en+kaţitů=eţ- kaţitů.)
No.	' M'	
m (in case-relation sandhi)	k, c, l, p	m is dropped and the succeeding consonant is doubled. (c. g. maram + kōṭū = mara-k-kōṭū.)
Do.	a or ä	m is dropped and the preceding a is optionally lengthened or is followed by intervocalic v. (e.g. maram + ați = marā-ați ⁴ or maravați.)

This generally happens when the initial member of the following word is a vowel.

^{2 &}amp; 3. These may be called cases of epenthesis according to Vendreyes (cf. Language, p. 61) though Brugman gives the same name to a slightly different phenomenon.

^{4.} This is a case of hiatus; but now $\bar{a}a$ is pronounced like pluta in Sanskrit.

m (in case-relation sandhi)	k. c, t, p	m is dropped and some- times the correspond- ing nasal is inserted instead of k, c, t, p, (e.g. kulam+karai= kulakkarai or kulan- karai.)
m (in non-case-relation sandhi)	Do.	m is changed to the nasal corresponding to k, c, t, p. (e. g. maram + kuritù = marankuri-tù.)
m (of āyiram)	word denoting number	m is dropped and attu is inserted. (e.g. āyiram +onrū=āyirattonrū.)
m (of āyiram)	word denoting measure and weight begin- ning with k, c, t, p	m is dropped and k, c, t, p are doubled. (e. g. dyiram + pāṇai = āyi- ra-p-pāṇai.)
m (of num)	h, c, t, p	i m is dropped and the nasal corresponding to k, c, t, p is inserted. (e.g. num+kai=nun- kai.)
111	D	m is shortened to ‡ mātrā. (e. g. nilam+ valitū=nilamvalitū.)
m (of words denoting star)	k, c, t, p	m is dropped and attu and āṇ are inserted. (e.g. makam+koṇṭāṇ = makattāṛkoṇṭāṇ.)
	• <u>N</u> •	
y (in case-relation sandhi)	k, c, t, p	changed to r. (e.g. pon- kuṭam=porkuṭam.)
n (of words man, cin an, in, mun, pin or verbal participle)	Do.	changed to r. (e. g. pin kontān = pirkontān.)

^{1.} This is may be otherwise stated that m is assimilated to k, c, t, p.

n (of avvayin, ivvayin, uvvayin, cvvayin)	k, c, t, p	changed to r
u (of min)	Do.	Optionally changed to r. (e. g. mīŋkoṇṭāṇ or mīṛkoṇṭāṇ.)
n (of tēn)	Do.	 No change; n is changed to r; n is dropped and the following consonant is doubled; or
		(4) nasal is inserted. (e. g. tēņkuţam,tēţkuţam, tēkkuţam or tēnku-ţam.)
u (of words min, pin, pan and kan)	Do.	u and k, c, t, p are inserted. (e. g. minnu-k- kaṭumai.)
n (of the word cāttan) the name of a person)	tantai (de- noting re- lationship)	ltan of căttan is dropped. (e. g. căttan + tantai = căttantai.)
n (of the words ātan and pūtan)	Do.	² Do. (e.g. ātaņ + tantai = āntai).
n (of tān, pēn, kōn) tant rei	ai (denoting lationship)	3 No change. (e.g. tān+ tantai=tānrantai.)
អ្ន (of tāṇ, yāṇ in case- relation sandhi)	k, c, t, p	tān is changed to tan and yān to en. (e.g. tān+ai=tannai, yān +ai=ennai.)
n (of tān, yān in non- case-relation sandhi)	Do.	No change.
n (of mun)	il	⁴ r is inserted. (e. g. munril.)

^{1 &}amp; 2. These are cases of haplology.

Though 'n' does not change here, 't' of the following word changes to 'r.'

Here the words il and mun are first of all interchanged. This
may be taken as a case of metathesis of whole words.

\underline{n} (of $a\underline{l}a\underline{n}$)	k, c, t, p	n is dropped and the succeeding consonant is doubled, (e.g. alan- kuṭam=alakkuṭam.)
	'Y'	48 A C 4
y (in case-relation san- dhi)	k, c, t, p	k, c, t, p are respectively inserted, and in some cases n, n, n, m are also respectively inserted. (e. g. nāy + kāl = nāykkāl; vēy + kurai = vēykkurai, vēynkurai.)
Exceptions:		
y (of the word tay)	Do.	No change. (e.g. lāykai)
y (of the word tāy pre- ceded by makan)	Do.	k, c, t, p are respectively inserted. (e. g. makan- rāykkalām.)
Non-case-relation Sandhi	നക്കാദരി	3/3
y (M)	Do.	No change. (e. g. nāy- kaṭitii)
	· R '	.89
r (in case-relation san- dhi)	k, c, t, p	k, c, t, p are respectively inserted. (e.g. $t\bar{e}r + k\bar{a}l$ = $t\bar{e}rkk\bar{a}l$.)
r (in non-case-relation sandhi)	Do.	No change.
r (of words ar, vetir, car and pir)	Do.	n, n, m are respective- ly inserted.
r (of car)	k of $k\bar{a}\underline{l}$	k is inserted. (e.g. cārk- kāl.)
r (of $p\bar{\imath}r$)	k, c, l, p	Flexional increment am is inserted. (e.g. pīr+ köṭù=pīr-an-kōṭù.)
	* L '	
l (in case-relation san- dhi)	k, c, t, p	<pre>l is changed to r. (e. g. kal+kurai=karkurai.)</pre>
Do.	ń, ñ, n, m	l is changed to n. (e. g. kal+muri=kanmuri.)

	SANDHI	87
l (in non-case-relation sandhi)	k, c, t, p	Either no change or l is changed to r. (e. g. kal + kuritū = kalkuritū or karkuritu.)
Do.	t	t is optionally changed to a when t is changed to r. (e.g. kal+tīti= kaarītii or karrītii.)
(of nel, cel, kel and cel in non-case-relation sandhi)	k, c, t, p	l is changed to r.
l (of il denoting nega- tion)	Do.	k, c, l, p are optionally inserted with ai or a before it; or no change. (e. g. il + kor- ran = illaikkorran; il-
C.Ch	m 40337	lākkorran, illaikorran; en + il + kuņam = eņņil- kuņam.)
l (of val)	Do.	" with one of k, c, l, p is respectively inserted.
		(e. g. val + kaţitù= vallu-k-kaţitù.)
l (of val followed by nāy and palakai)		a alone or a and p are inserted. (e.g. vallanāy; valla-p-palakai.)
l (of pūl)	k, c, t, p	Flexional increment am is inserted. (e.g. pūl + kōṭu = pūlankōṭu.)
l (of veyil)	Do.	attu is inserted,
	· V ·	
v (of av, iv, uv)	k, c, t, p	<pre>varru is inserted. (e. g. av+kōţû = av-varru- kōţû = avarrukkōţû.)</pre>
v (of non-case-relation sandhi)	Do.	v is changed to & (e.g. av + katiya = a&katiya.)
v	ñ, n, m	 n, n are respectively inserted.
v	semi-vowels or vowels.	No change,

v (of tev)	k, c, t, p	u with one of k, c, t, p is respectively inserted (e. g. tev+kaţitû= tev-v-u-k-kaţitû.)
	4 L '	121 8421 31 4 42 52
! (in case-relation san- dhi)	k, c, t, p	k, c, t, p are respectively inserted. (e. g. pūl + kāl = pūl-k-kāl.)
\underline{l} (of the word $t\bar{a}\underline{l}$)	k of the word kõl	akkii is inserted. (e. g. tālakköl.)
[(of the word tamil)	k, c, t, p	akkû is inserted, (e. g. tamil + kûttû = tamil- akkûttû.)
[(of the word pal)	Do.	k, c, t, p or n, n, n, m are respectively insert- ed. (e.g. pāl-k-kinaru, pāl-n-kinaru.)
l (of el)	നുക്കാദമി അക്കാദമി	an is inserted. (ē½+kā- yam=ēḷankāyam)
<u>l</u> (of <u>el</u> when followed by words denoting measure and weight)		ē is shortened to e and u is inserted after <u>l</u> . (e.g. eļu-kalam)
l (of ēl when followed by āyiram)		lonly \vec{e} is shortened to \(e.\) (e. g. \vec{e}\vec{l} + \vec{a}yiram. = \(e\vec{l}\vec{a}yiram.\))
I (of ēl when followed by nūrāyiram)		No change. (e.g. ēlnūr- āyiram.)
¿ (of ĕ½ when followed by tāmarai, ve¾am, āmpal denoting num- ber)		No change.
<u>l</u>	Vowels.	No change.
ℓ (of kīℓ)	k, c, t, p	k, c, t, p are optionally inserted. (e.g. kīļkuļam or kī <u>l</u> kkuļam.)
! (in case-relation san- dhi)	k, c, t, p	<pre>l is changed to t. (e. g. mul + kurai = mut- kurai.)</pre>

In Modern Tamil, ēļāyiram is used instead of eļāyiram. But on the other hand, eļunūrū is used instead of ēļnūrū.

! (in case-relation sandhi)	ñ, n, m	is changed to n. (e. g. mul + maram=mun- maram.) ¹
<pre>! (in non-case-relation sandhi)</pre>	k, c, t, p	Either no change or is changed to t. (e. g. mul-katitů or mut- katitů.)
Do.	t	is also changed to & while t is changed to t. (e.g. mul+titi=nua- titi; also muttiti.)
! (of the word iru!)	k, c, t, p	attu is inserted. (e. g. iruattukkontān.)
l (of pul and val)	Do.	u and one of k, c, t, p respectively are insert- ed. (e. g. pullukkaţitii etc.)
2.1126. The changes word is ii.	when the fi	nal member of the standing
Non-case-relation sandhi?	11.491321	100
ii Ma	k, c, t, p	No change. (e. g. nāku- kaṭitu.)
Exceptions:		AND THE PARTY OF T
ii (at the end of words like ⁴ kokkii, pākkii, where there is doubl- ing of consonant in the middle)	Do.	k, c, t, f are respectively inserted. (e.g. kokkû + kaţitû = kokku-k-kaţitû.)
ii (at the end of words beginning with de- monstrative roots a, i and n lengthened and the interrogative yā) ⁵	Do.	Do, (e. g. $anku + kontan$ = $anku-k-kontan$.)

^{1.} In modern days we find the word mulmaram also.

^{2.} This is a case of both progressive and regressive assimilation.

^{3.} Allatů kilappi n-ellä moliyuñ Colliva panpi n-iyarkai y-ākum. (Tol. E. 426.)

Vallorrů-t totar-moli valleluttu mikumě. (ibid. 427.)

^{5.} Cuţţu-c-ciyai ntţiya meyrotar moliyum Yā-vinā mutaliya menrotar moliyum A-y-iya ririyā valleļut tiyarkai. (ibid. 428).

(at the end of words beginning with interrogative ya)1

Case-relation sandhi:

ii (at the end of words with² a single long vowel or with two or more vowels other than ii in the word)

ii (at the end of words with³ a conjunct consonant or & in the middle)

ii4 (at the end of words having a double voiceless consonant in the middle or a voiceless

consonant preceded by a like nasal)4

ii3

 ii (at the end of words⁶ denoting trees) k, c, t, p Optionally no change.
(e. g. yāńkú-koṇṭāṇ)

Do. k, c, t, p are respectively inserted. (e. g. yāṭù + kāl=yāṭṭù-k-kāl; vara-kù + ceṭi = varakù-c-ceṭi.)

Do. No change. (e.g. telkii-kāl or cākii-kāl.)

k, c, t, p k, c, t, p are inserted respectively; in the second case, the voiced consonant in the middle is optionally made voiceless.(e.g. kokkū-k-kāl; kurankū-k-kāl;

ii is changed to i. (e. g. nākii + yātii = nākiyātii. Flexional increment am is inserted. (e. g. tenkii + kāy = tēkkankāy).7

- Yā-viṇā moliyē y-iyalpu m-ākum, (ibid. 429.)
- Îreluttû moliyu m-uyir-t-toţar moliyum Vērrumai y-āyi n-orritai y-ina-mikat Törram vēnţum valleluttû mikuti. (ibid. 412.)

k, c, t, p

- Rai-y-orru-t toţaru m-āyta-t toţarum Naţaiyā y-iyala v-cŋmaŋār pulavar. (ibid. 414.)
- Vanjotar moliyu mengotar moliyum
 Vanta vallelut t-orritai mikumë
 Mellorgu-t totar-moli mellor g-elläm
 Vallorguti-kilai-y-orgākum. (ibid. 415.)
- Yakaram varu-vali y-ikaran kuţukum Ukarak kilavi tuvara-t tönyātü. (ibid. 411.)
- Mara-p-peyar-k kılavi-k k-ammē cāriyai. (ibid. 416.)
- In the example tākkankāy three points are worth noting:—(1) when û of tenkû is joined with a of am, û is dropped. Whenever û is

u (of punku, etc.)1

k, c, t, p

²am is inserted; but the medial nasal is not changed to the corresponding voiceless consonant. (e. g. punkû+ köţû=punkanköţû.)

 ii (of aatu, iatu, uatu in ³non - case - relation

any vowel

No change.

sandhi)

Do.4

any consonant. & is dropped.

> Onpā n-okaramicai-t takara mo<u>rr</u>um Muntai y-o<u>rrē</u> ņakāra m-iraṭṭum Pasten kiļavi y-āyta-paka ran-keṭa

followed by a vowel, it is dropped. But this rule is not given in kurriyalukara-p-puṇariyal. In puṇariyal there is a sūtra 'kurriya l-ukaramu
m-arrena molipa' (Tol. E. 106) where the commentator Ilampūraṇar
says that it allows itself to be absorbed by the succeeding vowel as a
consonant does, but this commentary does not suit well since the consonant sound does not allow itself to be absorbed by the succeeding
vowel. (2) Tēkkankāy is now used as tēnkāy; this is an illustration of
haplology. (3) The ē in tēnkāy is the lengthened form of e in tenkū;
the lengthening here ought to have been done as compensation for the
loss of the succeeding sounds; the same cannot be said of ē in
tēkkankāy.

- Mellorru valiyā mara-p-peyaru m-uļavē. (Tol. E. 417.)
- It is worthy of note that n in punch is not assimilated to k and consequently changed to n; but, in modern days, in spoken Tamil it is changed to n also.
 - Munn-uyir varum-iţa-t t-āyta-p puţţi
 Mannal venţu m-alvaţi y-āna. (Tol. E. 424.)
 - 4. Enai-mun varine tănilai y-inge. (ibid. 425.)

Nirral vēņļu mukārak kiļavi
Orriya lakaram rakara m-ākum. (Tol. E. 446.)
Onpān mutanilai muntu-kiļan tarrē
Mūntai y-orrē lakāra m-iraţļum
Nūren kiļavi nakāra mey-keļa
Ū-v-ā v-āku m-iyarkai-t t-enpa
Āyiṭai varuta l-ikāra rakāram
Īrumey keṭuttu makara m-orrum. (ibid. 464.)

The former may be translated as follows :-

When on path is combined with pasth, t is inserted before of on path, nn is substituted for n, past is dropped, n is inserted after nn and t of pasth is replaced by r. Hence the form tonnin. (Here no mention is made of the dropping of path in onpath; but it seems to me that it has been dropped on account of the same word pasth following it.) The latter sutra may be translated as follows:—When on path is combined with nnri, t is inserted before o of on path, ll is substituted for n, n of nnri is dropped, n is replaced by n. Hence totla-ira-m=tolla-y-iram, y being intervocalic. (Here also no mention is made of the loss of path in on path.)

These two sūtras clearly show that the derivation of the two words tonnāri and toļļāyiram was forgotten even at the time of Tolkāppiyaṇār.

In the last but one sūtra of Eluttatikāram, Tolkāppiyanār states that the sandhi that takes place between uriccol and a following word, between the two members of panpu-t-tokai and viņai-t-tokai, and between a word denoting a number and the same word, does not follow the rules already mentioned, and that it must be found out from usage. (e.g. veļ eņa veļuttatū becomes veļveļuttatū; kariyatū + kutirai becomes karunkutirai; koņra + yāṇai becomes kol-yāṇai; kollum + yāṇai becomes kol-yāṇai; pāttū + pattū becomes pappattū or paāpattū.)

2.12. Medieval Period: 2.121. The author of Vīra-coliyam explains sandhi in 18 stanzas in Cantippaţalam. Instead of the terms meypiritātal, mikutal, and kunral adopted by Tolkāppiyanār, he respectively mentions ādēša,tāgama and lopa.

This clearly shows that he wanted to import terms current in Sanskrit grammar in preference to Tamil terms. He prefers the term ādēša used in Pāṇini's Aṣṭādhyāyī to the term vikāra used in Prātišākhyas.

He then summarises the general views of Tolkāppiyanār in a clumsy fashion so as to suit the verse-form, and adds a few more not found in Tolkāppiyam. The substance of the following sūtras in Eluttatikāram of Tolkāppiyam is briefly mentioned in the stanzas 14, 16, 17, 19, 20 to 22 and 24 to 28.

Stanza No. in Cantippaţalam of Sūtra No. in Eluttatikāram.

Viracoliyam.			
14	151, 161, 358, 363, 384		
16	397, 398		
17	367, 368, 150		
19	7 311, 312, 315, 331		
20	150, 204, 222, 244, 250, 253		
and mo	255, 265, 274, 275, 277,		
166	281, 283, 290		
21	415		
22	303, 333, 398		
24	206, 207, 209, 239, 257		
25	82 312, 368, 398,		
26	259, 390		
27	174 to 203		
28	150, 151.		

In the 11th stanza he mentions that the negative particle na (of Sanskrit) loses its n before a consonant and it becomes an before a vowel. (cf. na+brāhmaṇaḥ=a-brāhmaṇaḥ; na+indraḥ=anindraḥ.)¹ In the 12th, he mentions guṇa and vṛddhi letters (as found in Sanskrit) and says that they appear in words having taddhita suffix as caivaṇ. These points found in Sanskrit grammar have no place in a treatise on Tamil grammar. Still he seems to have mentioned them since such Sanskrit words

Cf. nalöpö nañaḥ (P. A. 6.3.73) and tasmūnnuḍ aci (P. A. 6.3.
 74).

as are governed by these rules were found in plenty in the Tamil literature of his time. But all those words like abrāhmana, anindra, ramēša, šaiva must have been borrowed as they were in Sanskrit. Hence no adequate justification can be found in the strict requirements of Tamil language and grammar for formulating these rules.

In stanza 13 he definitely mentions that, if the standing word ends in i, i or ai, and if the following word commences with a vowel, y is inserted between them; if it is \tilde{e} , either y or vis inserted and if it is any other vowel, v is inserted. This is evidently an improvement upon Tolkāppiyanār, since the latter has stated only that an utampatumey may be inserted between two vowels (Tol. E. 141) and v is inserted after the demonstrative roots and before vowels as a-v-v-āṭai, i-v-v-āṭai, etc. (Tol. E. 208, 239 & 256.) The author of Viracoliyam may have gone through the literature written before his time and stated this law from the examples available from them, of which some are given below. q.

- Mani+ampalattul=mani-y-ampalattul (T.A.S. 1.3.4).
- Kumari + in = kumari-y-in (P.N. 6.2). 2.
- Uvavumati+uruviy=uvavumati-y-uruviy (P.N. 3.1).
- $I_{ti} + e_{pa} = i_{ti} e_{pa}$ (P.N. 17.39).
- Puravi + aivaroții = puravi-y-aivaroții (P.N. 2.13).
- Puravi + otu = puravi-y-otii (P.N. 16.1).

N.B.—But after the demonstrative i only v is inserted. e.g. i + an = i - v - an.

17'

- Ti+alavii = ti-y-alavii (K. 747).
- Ni+ākal-vēntiņum=ni-y-ākal-vēntiņum (P.N. 18.15).
- 3. Ti + um = ti - y - um (P.N. 2.4).
- 4. $N\bar{\imath} + \bar{e} = n\bar{\imath} - y - \bar{e}$ (P.N. 4.13).
- 5. $Ni + \tilde{o} = ni - y - \tilde{o}$ (P.N. 5.3).

· AI

- Erumai+anna=erumai-y-anna (P.N. 5.1). 1.
- Enkuvai + āvin = enkuvai-v-āvin (P.N. 13.1). 2.

- Ticai + irunānkum = ticai-y-irunānkum (P.N. 41.4).
- Tāṇai+um=tāṇai-y-um (P.N. 161.31).
- Mūţamāļikai+eţukka=māţamāļikai-y-eţukka

(S.I.I. ii, 521).

(E

- Tānē+atu=tānē-y-atii (P.N. 5.8).
- Koţuttōrē+unţi=koţuttōrē-y-unţi (P.N. 18.20).
- Tāmē+ūrtorum=tāmē-y-ūrtorum (P.N. 52.8).
- Cē+aţi=cē-v-aţi (Pattu, 5,62).
- Ē+urumaññaiyin=ē-v-urumaññaiyin (Pattu. 197.84).

Note.—Only y is inserted in most of the cases; v is rarely inserted.

· A '

- Amma+ivan_amma-v-ivan (P.N. 18.29).
- Unţākiya+uyarmannum = unţākiya-v-uyarmannum (P.N. 17.24).
- 3. Neţiya+ennātii = neţiya-v-ennātii (P.N. 47.2).
- Nilarra+êmamuracam=nilarra-v-êmamuracam (P.N. 3.3).
- Pôla+ôvātů pôla-v-ôvātů (P.N. 4.19).

· A'

- Vārā+aļavai=vārā-v-aļavai (P.N. 50.6).
- Ã+in+ku=ā-v-ir-kû (K. 1066).
- Tavirā+īkai=tavirā-v-īkai (P.N. 3.5).
- Kalankā+uļļam=kalankā-v-uļļam (Cilap. 4.70).
- 5. $M\tilde{a} + \tilde{e} = m\tilde{a} v \tilde{e}$ (P.N. 4.7).

. U'

- U+an=u-v-an (Tol. Col. 162).
- Maru+inri=maru-v-inri (Cilap. 5.39).
- Valipaţu+ōr=valipaţu-v-ōr (P.N. 10.1).

·Ū

Tū +ē+kulavi=tū-v-ā-k-kulavi (P.N. 379.15).

E and o, it has already been stated, are very rare as finals of roots or nouns. In stanza 15 he mentions that if \underline{l} or \underline{l} is followed by t, it is changed to \underline{t} and consequently t also is changed to \underline{t} and in some cases one of the two \underline{t} 's is dropped. This dropping of one of the two \underline{t} 's when the vowel preceding \underline{l} is short is not mentioned in Tolkäppiyam. e.g. $arumporul+tar\overline{u}um$ becomes $arumporul-ar\overline{u}um$ in Cılap. 24 where \underline{l} is changed to \underline{t} and then dropped. I carefully ransacked several works written before his time, but I could not find one example in them where \underline{l} is changed to \underline{t} or is dropped. In the first stanza in Kantapurāṇam, a later work, $tika\underline{l}+tacakkaram$ becomes $tika\underline{t}acakkaram$ where \underline{l} is dropped after changing the succeeding \underline{t} to \underline{t} . In Kamparāmā-yaṇam, a work written after Vīracōliyam $k\overline{n}\underline{l}+ticai$ becomes $k\overline{t}t\underline{t}icai$, (Kampar. C. Kaṭaltāvu. 39) where \underline{l} is changed to \underline{t} .

In stanza 18, he says that, if \underline{l} is followed by n, \underline{l} is dropped and n changes to \underline{n} . e. g. $v\underline{a}\underline{l} + n\underline{a}\underline{l} = v\underline{a}\underline{n}\underline{a}\underline{l}$. Cf. $v\underline{a}\underline{n}\underline{a}\underline{l}$ ann $\underline{a}\underline{l}$ (Kampar. C. Urtetu. 75). Similarly he says that, if \underline{l} is followed by a voiceless consonant, it is changed to \underline{t} or \underline{n} and if it is followed by \underline{m} , it is changed to \underline{n} . These points are not found in Tolkāppiyam.

In stanza 23 he says that the ādēšas of onrū, irantū, mūnrū, nāiū, aintū, ārū, ēl, ettū, onpatū, paltū and nūrū are respectively oru, or: iru, ir: mu, mū: nānkū: ai: aru: elu: en: onpān: ton, ton: pān, pan: nūrū, patu, pastū and āyiram. This is only a brief summary of the rules in Tolkāppiyam dealing with the sandhi of numbers mentioned in kurriyalukara-p-puņariyal. One point to be noted here is that he does not indulge in any tanciful derivation of toṇṇūrū and tollāyiram like Tolkāppiyanār but explains them as formed out of tol and nūrū, and tol and āyiram, though he fancies that tol and nūrū are ādēšas of onpatū and pattū in the former and tol and āyiram are the ādēšas of onpatū and nūrū in the latter.

He has not divided sandhi into the two classes, the caserelation sandhi and the non-case-relation sandhi, as Tolkāppiyanār has done. This is perhaps due to the fact that such a division is not found in Sanskrit Grammar. But considering the points of difference in sandhi between two words in Tamil when the former is in case-relation with the latter or otherwise, I find it difficult to understand why he has omitted it.

- The author of Neminatam has given 15 stanzas on sandhi of which about 10 are almost identical with Viracoliyam in substance. Three of them contain the same matter as in Tolkāppiyam. He gives like the author of Vīracoliyam, the guna and vrddhi letters applicable to Sanskrit words, but differs from him in his statement that if the standing word ends in e, only v is inserted if it is followed by a vowel. He gives some more rules, e.g. v of tev is changed to m if it is followed by m.
- The author of Nannul has skilfully summarised all the sūtras of Tolkāppiyam on sandhi with the additions mentioned by Hampûranar, the authors of Vîracôliyam and Něminātam with reference to pure Tamil words, with slight changes here and there.
- The important points where Nannülär differs from Tolkāppiyanār: - (1) Tolkāppiyanār says that there is no change in non-case-relation sandhi if the standing word ends in v1; but Nannúlär says that if y is preceded by a short vowel and followed by a nasal, the same nasal is inserted.2 (e.g. mey + ñānāatù = mey-ñ-ñânratu.)
- (2) Tolkāppiyanār says that, if the demonstrative roots are followed by consonants, they are doubled; but Nannūlār adds the interrogative e also as e-k-korran and also says that if the demonstrative root is lengthened and is followed by a vowel, y but not v, is inserted;3 this is not mentioned by

Alvali y-ellä m-iyalpena molipa. (Tol. E. 362.)

En-m@ v-eluttir r-evvakas molikkum Mun-varu ña-na-ma-ya va-k-ka 1-iyalpum Kuril-vali y-a-t-tani y-ai-n-notu mun-meli Mikalum-ām na-ļa-ŋa-la vali-na-t tiriyum. (Na. 158.)

Ekara vinā-mu-c cuttin munnar 3. Uvirum vaharam-u m-eytin va-v-v-um Pira-vari n-avaiyum tükkir cuttu Nilin yakaram-um töngutal negi-y-ē. (ibid. 163.) 13

Tolkāppiyaṇār though he has used it in his first sūtra in Collatikāram 'ā-y-irutiṇaiyiṇ icaikkumaṇa collē'.

- (3) Tolkāppiyanār has not definitely stated that û at the end of the standing word is dropped if it is followed by a vowel; Nannūlār has definitely stated it. He may have taken it from Iļampūranar's commentary on the sūtra 'kurriya lukaramın marrena molipa' (Tol. E. 106).
- (4) Tolkāppiyanār states that when the word pala is followed by the same word, the two become palapala, pala-ppala or parpala. Iļampūranar adds the word cila also to that category and continues that when pala and cila are followed by other words also, they optionally lose the final a. (e. g. palakalai, pal-kalai: cila-vaļai, cil-vaļai, etc.) Nannūlār agrees with both¹.
- (5) Tolkāppiyanār says that i of verbal participle inri is changed to u in verse. Nannūlār adds the word anri also.²
- (6) Nannülär says that, if the word uri is followed by certain words, ya is inserted between them, as uri+uppū=uriya-v-uppū: uri+payarū=uri-ya-payarū.³ This is not mentioned by Tolkāppiyanār or by the author of Vīracoliyam.
- (7) Nannūlār says that there are certain words ending in ū which take the flexional increment ai in sandhi. (e.g. pantū+ kālam=pantaikkālam; inrū+nāl=irraināļ)4. This is not mentioned by Tolkāppiyanār.
- (8) Nannulär exactly agrees with the author of Viracolliyam as regards uṭampaṭumey or intervocalic consonant, which Tolkappiyanar has not clearly stated.
 - Pala-cila v-eŋum-ivai tam-muŋ tām-variŋ
 Iyalpum mikalum akara m-ēka
 Lakaram yakara m-ākalum piya-variŋ
 Akaram vikaypa m-ākalu m-uļa-piya. (ibid. 170.)
 - Angi y-ingi-yen vinai-y-eñ c-ikaram
 Toţarpinu ţ-ukara m-üy-vari n-iyalpē. (ibid. 173.)
 - Uri-vari nāļiyi n-īrruyir mey-keţa
 Maruvum ţakara m-uriyin valiyē
 Yahara v-uyir-mey-ā m-ērpana varinē. (ibid. 174.)
 - Ai-y-īr ruţai-k-kur rukaram-u m-uţavē. (ibid. 185.)

- (9) Tolkāppiyanār says that, when both the standing word and the following word denote directions, the final û with the preceding consonants is dropped, and if the standing word is terkii, r also is changed to n.¹ (cf. ten-mērkii.) Iļampūraņar adds under the same sūtra that, even if the following word does not denote direction, the same change takes place (as vaṭakaṭal) and also r of mērkii is changed to l as mēl+kūrai. Nannūlār agrees with the latter.²
- (10) Nannūlār says that, if teňků is the standing word and kāy is the following word, kù is dropped and e is lengthened.³ (e.g. teňků+kāy=tēňkāy.)⁴
- (11) Tolkāppiyanār says that, if the word pattu is followed by onrū, mūnrū, nānkū...eṭṭū, tū of pattū is dropped and the flexional increment in is inserted.⁵ (e. g. pattū + onrū = pat-in-onrū, etc.) Hampūranar adds the flexional increment iṛṛu also. Nannūlār agrees with the latter.⁶
 - Tiripu-vērū kiļappi v-orrū m-iruti-y-uit
 Keţutal vēnţu m-enmanār pulavar
 Orru-mey tirintu nakāra m-ākun
 Terkoţū puņaruit kālai y-āna. (Tol. E. 433.)
 - Ticai-y-oţū ticai-y-um pira-v-uñ cerin Nilai-y-īr r-uyir-mey ka-v-v-orrū ninkalum Rakaram na-la-v-ō-t tiritalu m-ām-pira. (Na. 186.)
 - Tenku-nin tirruyir mey-keţun kāy-varin. (ibid. 187.)
- This lengthening of the vowel is evidently due to compensating the loss of 'kû'.
 - Onrů-muta l-āka v-eţţa n-iruti
 Etlă v-ennum pattan mun-varir
 Kurriya-lukara meyyotun keţumē
 Murra v-in-varūu m-iranţalan kaṭaı-y-ē. (Tol. E. 434.)
 - Ongu-muta l-īrain t-āyirah köţi
 Eŋŋigai y-alavum piga-varig pattin
 Īrguyir mey-keţu-t t-iŋ-ŋ-u m-iggum
 Ērpa t-ērku m-onpatú m-iŋaittē. (Na. 197.)

- (12) Nannūlār says that, if the standing word ends in a consonant other than y and the following word begins with yā, i is sometimes inserted.¹ (e.g. vēļ+yāvaņ=vēļiyāvaņ.)²
- (13) Tolkāppiyanār says that, if the word ekin not denoting a tree is the standing word, it takes after it the flexional increment a, and then the initial voiceless consonant of the following word is doubled.³ (e. g. ekin+kāl=ekin-a-k-kāl.) Iļampūranar adds that, instead of the same voiceless consonant being doubled, the corresponding nasal may be inserted, as ekin-a-n-kāl. Nannūlār agrees with the latter.⁴
- (14) If the standing word ends in y, r or <u>l</u> and the initial member of the following word is k, c, t or p, there is no change in non-case-relation sandhi according to Tolkāppiyanār, and the same consonant may be doubled according to the author of Viracoliyam. Nannūlār agrees with the latter.⁵
- (15) Nannūlār says that, if the word tev is followed by a word beginning with m, v is changed to m. (e.g. tev+munai= temmunai.)⁶ But this is not mentioned by Tolkāppiyanār. This, he has adopted from Nēminātam.
- (16) As regards the formation of tonnarů and tolläyiram, Nannülär agrees with the author of Vîracoliyam in substituting
 - Tan-n-oli mey-m-mun ya-v-vari n-ikaram Tunnu m-enrû tuninaru m-ularê. (ibid. 206.)
- This insertion of 'y' is perhaps through analogy with the insertion of 'i' when such words as khyūti are tamilised into kiyūti.
 - Ēņai y-ekiņ-ē yakaram varum-ē Valleļut t-iyarkai mikutal vēnţum. (Tol. E. 338.)
 - Maram-al l-ekin-moli y-iyalpum akaram Maruva vali-meli mikalu m-ākum. (Na. 215.)
 - Ya-ra-la munnar-k ka-ca-ta-pa alvali Iyalpu mikalu m-ūkum vērrumai Mikalu m-inatiō ţ-uraltalum viti-mēl. (Na. 224.)
 - Tev-v-en moliye tolir peya r-arre Ma-v-varin valkan ma-v-vu m-ākum, (ibid. 236.)

nūrii and āyiram for pattii and nūrii, but agrees with Tolkāppiyaṇār in the method of changing on patii to ton and tol respectively. (cf. Na. 194.)

- 2.13. Modern Period: 2.131. The author of Ilakkanavilakkam has given 106 sūtras in sandhi in three chapters. Of them 22 sūtras are identically the same as are found in Tolkāppiyam and 69 as found in Nannūl; nine are adapted from Tolkāppiyam and 4 from Nannūl; two are original.¹
- 2.132. The Rev. C.J. Beschi agrees with all the grammarians regarding the insertion of the intervocalic consonant except in the case of c, after which, he says, y is inserted², while others say that v is inserted. Among the changes in sandhi he includes tiratții which means dirgha-sandhi, guna-sandhi and vrddhisandhi³ like the authors of Vîracoliyam and Neminătam.
- 2.14. Similarities and Dissimilarities between Sanskrit and Tamil in Sandhi: 2.141. Similarities: There are 3 points in which Sanskrit sandhi and Tamil sandhi are similar.
- (1) In Sanskrit if the standing word ends in n preceded by a short vowel and is followed by a vowel, n is doubled. (e. g. sugan+īśaḥ=sugan-n-īśaḥ.) Cl. namā hrasvād aci namun nityam. (P. A. 8.3.32.) Similar is the case in Tamil. e. g. kan+ alakiti=kan-n-alakiti. (Tol. E. 161.)
- (2) The final m when followed by a voiceless consonant is changed to the corresponding nasal. e. g. am+kitaḥ=ankitah. Similarly añcitaḥ, etc. Cf. mö'nusvāraḥ (P.A. 8.3.23.)

They deal with the point that there is no change in sandhi if the standing word is vocative or ends in third or sixth case suffix. As regards sandhi when the standing word is vocative, it seems to me that he has followed similar sandhi in Sanskrit.

Mutaligruyirmoli yecerpuli, ileai yiriyaiyum yavve, maggai yuyirkkil vakaram punarum (T. V. 20); tiripali vākkam tiraţţunāl vikāram, (ibid. 21.)

Irumoliy orumoli yenaccan kirtamāy, nilaimoli yirruyir ninkalu matano, ţanaimoli mutarkan a āvātalum ūcyātalum, uūovātalumām. (T. V. 38.)

and anusvārasya yayi para savarņaķ (P. A. 8.4.58). In Tamil also the same is the case in non-case-relation sandhi. (e. g. maram+kuritù=marankuritù, etc.) (Tol. E. 315.)

- (3) Both in Sanskrit and Tamil, the final letter of the vocative does not generally undergo any change.

None of these laws finds a place in Tamil in any period, except perhaps some of them are used in modern spoken Tamil. In place of these laws, Tamil has the one important law that a semi-vowel may, in the ancient period and must, in the medieval and modern periods, be inserted between two vowels except in the case of it which is dropped.

- (2) Besides, the insertion of flexional increment between the base and the case-suffix as found in Tamil is unknown in Sanskrit.
- (3) The doubling of the initial consonant of the following word when the final of the standing word is a vowel, as in Tamil vi[d-k-kuritū, is practically unknown in Sanskrit.
- (4) In Sanskrit accented syllables take guna or vrddhi, while, in Tamil, flexional increments are generally added before them.
- (5) Another important difference in sandhi between Tamil and Sanskrit is that, in the former, it is divided into two important classes, the case-relation sandhi and the non-case-relation sandhi, and in the latter, such a classification is not found. Hence it is clear that in Tamil when words have to be combined.

in sandhi, one must know before-hand their meaning, which is not necessarily the case in Sanskrit except in the case of the nouns in the vocative case and nouns in dual number. But on the other hand, in several respects the internal sandhi differs from the external sandhi in Sanskrit, while in Tamil no difference is generally made in the treatment of sounds in both these varieties of sandhi.

Hence it may be said that the ways in which sandhi takes place in both the languages are so different as to form one of the strong reasons to prove that Tamil and Sanskrit are fundamentally different languages.



3. COL OR PARTS OF SPEECH.

- 3.1. Definition: All Tamil grammarians except the author of Viracoliyam and its commentator and the author of Pirayokavivēkam define col or word as that which conveys sense.1 This is exactly similar to the statement 'arthal padam' (S.Y.V.P. 3.2.) found in Šukla Yajurvēda Prātišākhya and also to the statement 'šaktam padam' made by Sanskrit logicians. But the authors of Vīracoliyam and Pirayokavivēkam follow Pāṇini's definition 'suptinantam padam' (P.A. 1.4.14.), since they say that a particle su is added at the end of nouns in the nominative singular and then it is dropped,2 as is done in the case of the nominative singular of neuter nouns in Sanskrit like šuci, madhu, etc. and generally of masculine and feminine nouns whose base ends in a consonant like vac, bhişaj, etc. By so doing they have distorted the perspective through which the linguistic phenomena of the Tamil language should be analysed and evaluated. For, in the Tamil language gender is generally determined by sex, and at no stage grammatical gender was recognised as a category distinct from natural gender.
- 3.2. Classification:—Parts of speech are, in the opinion of Tolkappiyanar, Nannular and the later grammarians, primarily two in number, viz., peyar and vinai, and they would, in a secondary sense, give the dignity of parts of speech to two more categories, viz., itai-c-col and uri-c-col.³ A striking parallelism is discernible between this classification and that in Yaska's

Ellā-c collum porul-kuţit taŋavē. (Tol. Col. 155.)

oruvan orutti y-ongi nëriya cu enkum Aliyum-uriya cu. (V.V. 5) & (P.V. p. 12, line 7).

Col-l-eŋa-p paţupa peyarê viŋai-y-eŋ

R-ā-y-iran ţ-eŋpa v-arintici ŋūrê. (Tol. Col. 158.)

Iţai-c-cor kiţavi-y-u m-uriccor kiţaviyum

Avarru-vaţi marunkir röŋru m-eŋpa. (ibid. 159.)

Nirukta 'catvāri padajātāni nāmākhyātē ca upasarganipātāśca' (Y.N. 8.8). As Durgācārya points out, the priority given to nāma and ākhyāta indicates their primary importance, while upasarga and nipāta are assigned to a subordinate position.

A somewhat similar classification is also found in Rg-veda Prātiśākhya and Śukla Yajur-veda Prātiśākhya:—

Nāmākhyātam upasargō nipātāścatvāri āhuḥ padajātāni śābdāḥ (R.V.P. 12.5).

Nāmākhyātōpasarganipātāḥ (S.Y.V.P. 8.44). It would become apparent from what follows in this section that Tolkāppiyaṇār had perhaps this classification of Nirukta and Prātišākhyas for his model and introduced slight variations. While the first two of the four classes, viz., nāma=peyar-c-col, ākhyāta=viṇai-c-col are kept intact, the third and the fourth classes were grouped into one, viz., iţai-c-col and a new fourth class, uri-c-col, was introduced for the sake of consistency with the Sanskritic model.

3.21. Peyar: 3.211. Definition: Tolkāppiyaṇār has not clearly defined what peyar is. But from the list of peyar given by him in Peyar-iyal, the fifth section of the second Chapter of Tolkāppiyam, it seems to me that peyar is a word denoting a person or an object. This agrees with the definition of nāma given in Rg-veda Prātišākhya as 'sattvābhidhāyakam nāma' (R.V.P. 12.8) where sattva evidently means dravya or object. of. sattva . . . śabdaḥ astyēva dravyapadārthakaḥ: (M.B. i. 341.2). Hence Tolkāppiyaṇār does not seem to include abstract nouns under peyar. His statement that peyar does not denote time except when it is a verbal noun,² that it takes a finite

Atra nāmākhyātayāh pūrvam abhidhānam, prādhānyāt, aprādhānyāt upasarga-nipātānām paścāt | Ubhē api nāmākhyātē nipātāpasarganīrafēkṣē api satī svam artham brūtaḥ | Na tu upasarganipātānām nāmākhyāta-nirafēkṣāṇām arthā'sti || (Durgācārya's Comm. on. Y.N. 8.8.)

Peyar-nilai-k kiļavi kālan töngā
 Tolinilai y-oţţu m-ongalan kaţai-y-z. (Tol. Col. 70.)
 14

verb after it¹ and that the case-suffixes are added after it² simply explains *peyar*; it does not define it as interpreted by commentators.

Nannūlār and later grammarians have, like the abovementioned commentators, adopted this as its definition³ and hence have included numerals⁴ and abstract nouns also under peyar,⁵ though they sometimes use the word nāmam itself in place of peyar.⁶ In Tamil, peyar denotes nouns, pronouns and numerals.⁷

- Porunmai cuţţal viyankoţa varutal
 Vinai-nilai y-uraittal vinā-v-ir kērral
 Panpu-koţa varutal peyar-koţa varuţalen
 R-anri y-anaittum peyar-p-paya nilai-y-ē. (ibid. 66.)
- Kūriya murai-y-i n-urupu-nilai tiriyā
 Tīru-peyar-k k-āku m-iyarkaiya v-en-pa. (ibid. 69.)
- Iţukuri kāraņa maraţō ţ-ākkan
 Toţarntu toţil-ala kālan tōrrā
 Vērrumai-k-k-iţaŋ-āy-t tiņai-pā l-iţat-t-onrū
 Ērpavum potu-v-u m-āvaṇa peyarē- (Na. 275.)
- 4. Vinā-c-cuţ ţ-uţanum vēru m-āmporuţ
 Āti y-urutu-c cuţţanai y-āytam
 Onr n en n-innana v-onran peyarē. (ibid. 279.)
 Munna r-a-v-v-oţū voruvai ya-v-v-um
 Cuţţ-ru va-v-v-un kaţ-ţ-iru moţiyum
 Onra l-ennu m-uţţa v-illa
 Palla cilla v-uţa-v-ila pala-cila
 Innavum palavin peyar-ā kum-m-ē. (ibid. 280.)
- Vinaiyin peyarê paţarkkai vinaiyāl
 Anaiyum peyarê y-ānţu m-ākum. (ibid. 286.)
 Pal-vakai-p panpum pakar-peya r-āki
 Oru-kunam pala-kunan taluvi-p peyar-vinai
 Oruvā ceyyuţku uriyana uriccol. (ibid. 442.)
- Paţarkkai viŋai-murru nāman kurippu
 Perappaţun tiŋai-pā l-aŋaittu m-ēŋai
 Iţattavar rorumai paŋmai-p pālē. (ibid. 265) and (I. V. 167.)
- It is clear from the expression 'ennu-k-kuri-p-peyar' in Palla pala-cila v-ennum peyarum Ulla v-illa v-ennum peyarum

- 3.212: Classification: 3.2121. Peyar is classified under three heads:—(1) Uyartiṇai or high caste (2) aṣṣṇṇai or casteless and (3) viravu-t-tiṇai or caste common to both. Tolkāp-piyaṇār defines uyartiṇai as words denoting human beings, and aṣṣṇṇai as words denoting objects other than human beings¹. He includes words denoting gods under uyartiṇai.² The author of the Nēminātam includes narakar also under uyartiṇai.³ He is followed by Naṇṇūlār.⁴ The author of llakkaṇaviļakkam repeats what is said by Tolkāppiyaṇār⁵.
- 3.2122. Uyartinai is divided into three pāls, viz., ānpāl, peņpāl and palarpāl. Ānpāl is that which denotes a male, peņpāl, a female and palarpāl, more than one male or female.

Vinai-p-peyar-k kifaviyum panpu-kofa peyarum Inaittena-k kifakku m-ennu-k-kurip peyarum Oppinākiya peyar-nilai-y-ufappata A-p-pā l-anpatu m-avarrā r-anna. (Tol. Col. 168.)

that the words oncu, irantu etc., are nouns according to Tolkappiyanar only when they respectively mean one object, two objects, etc.

- Uyartinai y-enmanār makkat cutit

 A riņai y-enmanā r-avarala piravē

 Ā y-irutinaiyi n-icaikkumana collē. (Tol. Col. 1.)
- Penmai cuţţiya v-uyartinai marunkin
 Ānmai tirinta peyar-nilai-k kiţaviyum
 Teyvañ cuţţiya peyar-nilai-k kiţaviyum
 I-v v-ena v-ariyum-an tan-tamak kilavē
 Uyartinai marunkir pāl-pirin t-icaikkum. (ibid. 4.)
- Ērra tinai-y-iranţum pāl-aintu m-ēl-valuvum Vērrumai y-eţţu-n tokai-y-āru-mārrariya Mūnriţamun kālankan mūnţu m-iranţi-ţattār Rönra v-uraippatāñ col. (N. N. Col. 2.)
- Makkal i var naraka r-uyartinai Magruyi r-ullavu m-illavu m-a&ginai. (Na. 261.)
- Uyartinai yenmanār makkat cuţţē
 Aŝzinai yenmanār r-avarala pirarē. (I. V. 162.)
 Teyvamum pēţum-ā m-a-v-v-iru pakutiyum
 I-v-v-ena v-aţiyum-an tan-tamak k-ilavē
 Uyartinai marrinkiţ pāl-pirin t-icaikkum. (I. V. 165.)

Similarly as rinai is divided into two pāls, viz., on ranpāl and palavinpāl. On ranpāl is that which denotes one animal other than a human being, or a lifeless object and palavinpāl is that which denotes more than one of them. Hence it is evident that gender and number are not taken as separate entities in Tamil language, and that the pāl or the gender and number in Tamil nouns are determined more from their meaning than from their ending, though it is generally stated that the ending n¹ denotes masculine singular, 2, feminine singular, r, mār³ epicene plural, tū⁴ neuter⁵ singular and a⁶ neuter plural. Though the word pen-makan ends in n, it is feminine singular; though makkal ends in l, it is epicene plural; though āl ends in l, it is common gender singular, and so on.

3.213. Declension: 3.2131. General points in Declension: 3.21311. Case: There are, in Tamil, 8 cases. The cases from the accusative to the locative were, it seems to me, named after their suffixes by the Tamil grammarians who lived before Tolkappiyanar, as ai-vērrumai, oṭn-vērrumai, ku-vērrumai, iṇ-vērrumai atu-vērrumai and kaṇ-vērrumai, but the vocative

- 1. Naskā n-ogre y-ātāu v-agi-col. (Tol. Col. 5.)
- 2. La&kā n-orre makatūu v-ari-col. (ibid. 6.)
- Raškā norrum pakara v-irutiyum
 Mārai-k kiļavi yum-uļappaţa mūnrum
 Nēra-t tönrum palar-ari collē. (ibid. 7.)
- Onrați kilavi ta-ța-ța v-urnta Kunriya lukara-t t-ițuti y-ükum. (ibid. 8.)
- 5. It is to be understood that the words masculine singular, feminine singular and neuter singular, gender, do not at all correspond to anyal and onranyal, since the classification of pal and that of gender are entirely on different bases; but for want of better terms they are used here to denote them.
 - A ä va-eŋa varūu m-iṛuti
 A-p-pāŋ mūŋṛē pala-v-aṛi collē. (Tol. Col. 9.)
- The Tamil word vērrumai seems to be the translation of the Sanskrit word vibhakti.
 - Iranță kuvate
 Ai-y-ena-p peyariya verrumai-k kilavi......(Tol. Col. 71.)

was called vili-vērrumai from the sense which it conveyed, and the nominative, peyar-vērrumai. Tolkāppiyanār, though he adopted the name vili-vērrumai and peyar-vērrumai for the vocative, and the nominative cases respectively, began to name the cases from the accusative to the locative as irantam vērrumai, mūnrām vērrumai, nānkām vērrumai, aintām vērrumai, ārām vērrumai, and elam verrumai. This he did, perhaps on the model of Sanskrit grammarians like Pāṇini and his predecessors who called them dvitiyā, trtīyā, caturthī, pañcamī, sasthī and saptamī1 respectively. The name vili-vērrumai corresponds in sense to sambuddhi, the name given by the early Sanskrit grammarians to the vocative singular. Tolkāppiyanār did not change the names of peyar-vērrumai and vili-vērrumai perhaps because they were not represented by suffixes. On the other hand, Nannular began to call vili-vērrumai, ettām-vērrumai,2 and in modern times beyar-vērrumai also is called mutalvērrumai.

Mūngā kuvatē

Oţu-eŋa-p peyariya vērgumai-k kiļavi...(ibid. 73.)

Nāṇkā kuvatē

Ku eṇa-p peyariva vērgumai-k kiļavi....(ibid. 75.)

Aintā kuvatē

Iŋ-ṇa-p peyariya vērgumai-kiļavi....(ibid. 77.)

Ārā kuvatē

Atu-v-eṇa-p peyariya vērgumai-k kiļavi(ibid. 79.)

Ēļā kuvatē

Kaṇ-ṇ-ṇa-p peyariya vērgumai-k kiļavi....(ibid. 81.)

- Karmani dvitīyā. (P. A. 2, 3, 2-)
 Kartī-karaņayās tītīyā. (ibid. 18.)
 Caturthī sampradānē. (ibid. 13.)
 Apādānē pañcamī. (ibid. 28.)
 Şaṣṭhī śēṣē. (ibid- 50.)
 Saptamydhiharaņē ca. (ibid. 36.)
- Etta n-urupē y-eytu-peya rīrījīņ

 Tiripu kungal mikuta l-iyalpayal

 Tiripu m-ām poruļ paţarkkai y-ðrai-t

 Tanmuka m-āka-t tān-alai-p patuvē. (Na. 303.:

- 3.21312. Number: Tolkāppiyaṇār and all the later grammarians have mentioned only two numbers, singular and plural. The plural suffixes may be used, according to them, to denote honorific singular. Dr. Caldwell seems to think that nām is a species of dual² and denotes the speaker and the person spoken to. But it is found used with reference to not only the speaker and the person spoken to, but also a third person or persons standing near them. Hence there does not seem to be adequate justification for treating nām as a species of dual.
- 3.21313. Points of difference in Declension between Tamil and Sanskrit: There are four important points to be noted in the declension of nouns and pronouns in Tamil where it differs from Sanskrit.
- (1) One suffix in Tamil denotes both gender and number, (except the suffix kal added to wyartinai nouns in medieval and modern periods which denotes number alone) and another, case; while in Sanskrit, one pratyaya denotes gender and another both number and case.
 - (2) Tamil has no dual number, while Sanskrit has.
- (3) The suffixes of the second, third and seventh cases are added, in Tamil, to the nominative case form and not to the base as is done generally in Sanskrit.
- (4) Cāriyai or flexional increments are added in Tamil between the noun and the case suffixes. They are not ordinarily recognisable in Sanskrit except 'n' which is inserted between the stems ending in a vowel and the genitive plural suffix and the

Oruvan-orutti-y-on rān-cirappotu pallor-palavai-k Karutu-muraiyir kalappana-vērrumai kān-mutal-cu

Maruvum-ar-ar-arkal arkal-kal mar-mutal-verrumasyin

Uruvam-vili-vēr rumai-y-olittenku mura-p-perumē. (V. V. 2.)

 C. D. G. pp. 222, 223: Two plurals of the pronoun of the first person, one of which includes the party addressed as well as the party of speaker, and which may therefore be considered as a species of dual etc.

Iyarpeyar munna r-ārai-k kiļavi
 Palar-k-k-uri y-eļuttin vinai-yetu varumē. (Tol. Col. 270.)

instrumental singular suffix, through analogy with the corresponding cases of stems ending in n. (e.g. Rāmā-ņ-ām, Harī-ņ-ām, Hariņā through analogy with ātman-ām, guṇin-ām and guṇinā).

On the other hand, in the graded declensions in Sanskrit, stems exhibit different grades of vowel-variation. Such vowelvariations are not generally found in Tamil except to some extent in the declension of pronouns. (e. g. nām, nammai; tāṇ, taṇṇai, etc.)

3.2132. Case-suffixes: 3.21321. Case-suffixes from the first to the seventh are the following:

Ancient period.	Medieval Period.1	Modern Period.
1st Case No suffix	No suffix	No suffix
2nd case ai	ai	ai
3rd case oțu (ân also)2	oțu, ôțu, āl, ān	oțu, ōțu, āl, ān
4th case ku	ku 2/2	ku
5th case in	n, 10321	in, il
経費な	_ = / - 開閉	inum (Beschi)
6th case atu (if the fol- lowing word is a&rinai) ku (if the foll	atu, ātu, (if the fol- lowing noun is singular)	atu, ātu
word is uya		а
7th case kan	³ il, kaņ, kāl, kaļai, etc.	kaņ, kāl, kaţai, etc.

In the medieval period, since what is stated by the author of Vîracoliyam is entirely different from that of others, I have not men tioned it here but in 3.21324.

Tolkāppiyanār has mentioned 'āṇ' in
 Ku-ai āṇ-eṇa varāu m-iṛuti
 A-v-v-aṭū civanuñ ceyyu I-ullē. (Tol. Col. 108.)

though he has not stated that it denotes third case.

Kan-kāl kaţai-iţai talai-vāy ticai-vayin Mun-căr valam iţam mēl-kīl puţai-mutal

- 3.21322. Vocative case: There is generally no special suffix to denote vocative case. If the person addressed is very near the speaker, the nominative case form itself is used if the word ends in a vowel or āŋ. If the person addressed is at a great distance from the speaker, the quantity of the last vowel of the word is increased. (e.g. nampīi, makkāaļ, etc. Tol. Col. 152.) This is quite similar to the practice recorded in Pāṇini's statement 'dūrāddhūtē ca' (P. A. 8.2.24.). If the person addressed is neither very near to, nor at a distance from, the speaker, the following changes take place:—
- If the noun ends in i, i is lengthened to i, e.g. nampi.
- (2) If it ends in ai, ai is changed to āy; e.g. nankāy, annāy; but in words of relationship like annai, ai is also changed to ā. e.g. annā.
- (3) If it ends in \(\bar{o}\) or \(u\), \(\bar{e}\) is added at the end. e. g. \(\kar{k}\bar{o}\)-v-\(\bar{e}\), \(\text{tiru-v-\(\bar{e}\)}\), etc.
- (4) If it ends in y like colan, n is dropped if the person spoken to is near the speaker (cola), and a is also lengthened if he is a little away from him (cola); if it is a verbal noun like vantan or noun derived from a word denoting quality like kariyan, n is changed to y; if n is preceded by a, like ceraman, there is no change; if it denotes relationship as makan, e is added at the end.
- (5) If it ends in r preceded by a or ā, a or ā is changed to ī. (e.g. kūttar—kūttīr, pārppār—pārppīr; cf. cennā-p-pulavīr (oh! poets of refined speech) (P.N. 140, 2); if it is a verbal noun or one derived from a word denoting quality, a or ā is changed to ī and ē is added at the end. (c.g. vantār-vantīrē; kariyār kariyīrē.)
- (6) If it ends in l or l, the preceding vowel is generally lengthened. E. g. kuricil - kuricil; makkal - makkāl. This is similar to Pāṇini's statement 'vākyasya tēh pluta udāttah' (P. A.

- 8.2.82.) If it ends in l and is a verbal noun or a noun derived from a word denoting quality and if it is proceded by ā, l is changed to y (e.g., ninrāl-ninrāy; kariyāļ kariyāy). If it ends in l and denotes relationship, ē is added at the end (e.g. makal makalē).
- (7) If nouns denoting actinai have to be used in the vocative case, ē is invariably added at the end. (e.g. puli-y-ē, etc.)

The nouns ending in other letters have the same form in the vocative, as in the nominative case.

As regards the formation of the vocative case there is practically very little difference in all the three periods—ancient, medieval and modern¹.

- 3.21323. Special points regarding certain case-suffixes mentioned above:—In an attempt to give an historical exposition of grammatical theories in Tamil, the following points regarding certain cases deserve special notice.
- 3.213231. 7th case-suffix:—As regards the 7th case-suffix in the ancient period, Tolkāppiyanār gives two sūtras (Tol. Col. 81 and 82), the latter of which is the following:—

Kaṇ-kāl puram-aka m-uļ-ļ-ulai kīl-mēl Piṇ-cā r-ayal-puṭai tēvakai y-eṇāa Muṇ-ṇ-iṭai kaṭai-talai valam-iṭa m-cṇāa Aṇṇa piravu m-ataṇ-pāla v-eṇmaṇār. (Tol. Col. 82.)

This stanza is interpreted by Ilampūraņar and Naccinārkkiniyar to denote the suffixes which may come in the place of kaņ, the 7th case-suffix; but Cēṇāvaraiyar interprets it to denote the different meanings of kaṇ, the seventh case-suffix. Naṇṇūlār and all the later grammarians agree with Ilampūraṇar. But the arguments set forth against it by Cēṇāvaraiyar under the same sūtra appear to be convincing and my discussion in detail on the same is found in pages 94 to 96 of my Collatikāra-k-kurippū A critical study of collatikāram of Tolkāppiyam which was pub-

The above points are mentioned in vilimarapu of Tolkāppiyam, and sūtras 304 to 314 of Nannūl.

lished in 1930. One or two of the most important points may be mentioned here. If the latter sutra makes mention of suffixes, the suffix kan which finds a place in the sutra

> Elā kuvatē Kaņ-ņ-cņa-p peyariya vērrumai-kkiļavi Viņas-cey y-iţatti nilattir kālattin Anai-vakai-k kurippir rönru m-atuvē.

> > (Tol. Col. 81.)

need not be repeated here; tēvakai which is found in this sūtra is taken by all the commentators not as a case-suffix but as the meaning of the case-suffix kan; if akam be taken as a suffix, the cāriyai attu that is found in the expression 'ūrakatturuntān' (he was in the village) would be quite out of place, since the cāriyai can come only between a noun and a case suffix and not between a noun followed by a case-suffix and a verb.

3.213232. 6th case-suffixes:-As regards the sixth casesuffixes, it deserves to be noted that Tolkappiyanar says that it is ku if it is followed by an uyartinai nounl and atu in other places; and Nannūlār does not make any mention of ku and proceeds to make a new point by observing that 'atù' and 'ātù' are used if the tollowing noun is singular, and 'a' is used if it is plural. It seems strange here that the same element 'atu' affixed to nouns or pronouns denotes the gender of the noun which they qualify according to Tolkappiyanar and its number according to Nannülär. It seems to me that the latter has stated so since numerous expressions like 'ninna kanniyum (even thy garlands) (P. N. 45.3.), avara kāppuṭaiya kayam (their protected wells) (P.N. 15.9.), ematu ucciyārē (T. 21.1 to 7,1 were found used before his time. I venture to suggest the following reason for such a usage:-We see that, in expressions like 'kai enatu' (hand is mine) and 'kaikal ena' (hands are mine), the suffixes atu and a denote respectively singular and plural.

Here I have followed the commentary of Ilampuranar on the sutra.

Atu-v-en vērtumai y-uyartinai-t tokai-vayin Atu-v-e n-urupu-keţa-k kukaram varumē. (Tol. Col. 94.)

th and a are regular since they are the verbal terminations denoting onranțăl and palavințăl; but when expressions like 'enatii kai' (my hand) and 'enatù kaikal' (my hands) where atu at the end of enath is not a verbal termination, but the sixth case-suffix, were used, it may have been wrongly understood that atii in both enatù kai and kai enatù was the same sixth case-suffix. This may have led to the feeling that atù in 'enatù kaikal' should be treated as a mistake and changed to 'ena kaikal' on the analogy of 'kaikal ena'. Or expressions like põkā tama (K. 376) may have led to it. Here tama which, in its origin is a plural apprilative verb formed by adding a to tam is found used as a participal noun and means one's own objects. Thus expressions like 'tama porulkal' in the sense of objects which are one's own may have come into vogue. In such instances a of tama may have been mistaken for the sixth case-suffix added to words accompanied by plural nouns.

The following examples clearly support Tolkappiyanar's view that the noun or pronoun having the suffix 'atii' may be accompanied by a neuter noun irrespective of its being singular or plural.

> Ninatiru tiru-v-ați (Your two feet). (Cilap. 24, p. 518, 2nd edn.)

> Iraivaņatū aţiyiṇai (God's two feet). (T. 127.5.)
>
> Uṇatū aṭiyār maṇattāyō (Are you of the minds of your devotees). (P.T. 150.7.)

N.B.—Here ati and manam are neuter plurals.

3.213233. Fifth case-suffix 'il':—Tolkāppiyanār recognises 'in' as the fifth case-suffix, whereas 'il' has taken its place in Viracoliyam and is found used along with 'in' in Nannul and other later works. No attempt appears to have so far been made to discover the process by which Tolkāppiyanār's 'in' may have been metamorphosed into 'il' at the hands of the author of Viracoliyam.

For this I would suggest the following solution: Consider the following equations:

kõl + nanmai = kõnanmai kõn + nanmai = kõnanmai.

If we reverse the process, it is easy to see that there are two possible legitimate ways of splitting könanmai. This may have proved to be a fruitful source of confusion between the final n and final l. Perhaps in similar cases of sandhi like aracaninallan (aracanin+nallan or aracanil+nallan), a bias may have been developed in favour of the latter alternative aracanil+nallan. Thus 'il' may have come to usurp the place of 'in' as the suffix of fifth case.

3.213234. Third case-suffix 'āl':—Tolkāppiyanār's 'ān' used as an instrumental suffix1 perhaps underwent the same vicis-situde as in, the fifth case-suffix, and came to be replaced by āl (the third case-suffix) in Viracoliyam. It is found used along with ān in Nannūl and other later works.

3.21324. The author of Viracoliyam adopts a different plan for explaining case forms. As has already been said, he adopted Pāṇini's definition of padam and combines both the element that denotes the number and the element that denotes the case as one denoting case and number, since only one pratyaya denotes both number and case in Sanskrit. Besides, he says that 'cu' is the pratyaya for the first case singular and it is always dropped. This is evidently done in close imitation of Pāṇini's Grammar.² According to him the case-suffixes are the following:—

Singular: 1st case cu (dropped afterwards) Honorific Singular & Plural: ar, ār, arkaļ, ārkaļ, kaļ, mār & (cu in the neuter).

2nd case ai preceded by cu.

3rd case ofu, ōfu, āl preceded
by cu.

ai preceded by ar, ār, etc. oiu, ōiu, āl preceded by ar, ār, etc.

Ku-ai āŋ-eŋa varūu m-iruti
 A-v-v-otū civaņuñ ceyyu [-uffē. (ibid. 108.)

The author of Pirayökavivēkam follows him in this point. Cf. orupeyarc college cuppēri nīnkum. (P. V. 37. Comm.)

Singular:

4th case ku, poruțiu preceded ku, poruțiu preceded by ar. by cu.

5th case ningu preceded by kan, il, etc. preceded by cu.

6th case uţaiyān (ānpāl) uțaiyāl (penpål) uțaiyatů (onranpăl) (ku preceded by cu when the 6th case becomes a kāraka.)

7th case kē, ulai, il, kan and other words denoting place preceded by cu.

Honorific Singular & Plural: ār, etc.

ningu preceded by kan, il, etc. preceded by ar, ar, etc.

uţaiyār, uṭaiyārkaļ (palarpāl)

uţaiyina (palavinpāl)

(ku preceded by ar, ar, etc. when the 6th case becomes a kāraka.)

kē, uļai, etc., preceded by ar. ar, etc.

The points to be noted here are,-(1) The mention of 'ar' as the pluralising particle of nouns, while 'r' alone is said to be so by Tolkāppiyanār. It is shown in my article on Cutteluttu1 that a of ar is only ademonstrative root and has nothing to do with the plural number.

(2) The mention of the forms arkal and arkal; these are evidently cases of double plurals not sanctioned by Tolkappiyanar. The latter says that 'kal' may be affixed only to neuter nouns to denote plural number as māţukaļ (bulls), but that too was not absolutely necessary. According to him and even the later grammarians, we may say māţū vantaņa (bulls came). Hence it is very likely that kal which was originally added only to denote palaviy pal, may have been used through analogy to denote palarpāl, (e.g. nonpi-kaļ (M.M. 3.75); vacukkal (T. 42.5) and then it may have been added to plural forms both in palarpal and palavinpal. Then it seems to me that it was further extended through analogy to verbs also.

Examples of these double plurals and the use of kal after uvartinai nouns are found in very few instances in Cilappatikāram (e.g. pentirkal Cilap. 469.4) and in plenty in works of Saiva and

Vaiṣṇava literature and certain other works belonging to the period from 6th to 9th century A.D. and in the inscriptions of the later period.

Pattarkaļ payilavaittār (the temple purchits made them learn) (T. 27.2),

Ivai pāṭum tavamuṭaiyārkaļ (they have the fortune of singing these) (P.T. 96.10).

Eņvakai vacukkaļōţii (with eight kinds of Vasus)

(T. 42.5.)

Sēnāpatikaļ. (S. I. I. iii, iv, 133.)

It is worthy of note that such a use of kal is not at all found in the earlier works of the Sangam period like Puranānūru, Patirruppattu, etc.

In this connection I may say that, so far as Tamil is concerned, I do not agree with M. J. Vinson who thinks that the general plural sign in Dravidian is gal or kal and r another form of plural is of relatively modern origin. The reasons set forth below support my view on this point:—(1) According to Tolkāppiyaṇār there may have been a period when 'r' was used and 'kal' was not.

- (2) In words like aracarkal (kings), kal does not displace r but is added only after it.
- (3) 'R' is found in the verbal forms as a plural element in Tamil, Telugu and Canarese from the ancient times, and kal is not found as such in Canarese and Telugu even now. (e.g. Tel. cēsiri: Kan. geydir.)
- (4) 'R' may have been a plural element common to both the Dravidian and Indo-European languages since 'r' is found in Sanskrit lēbhirē.

It may be useful to observe in this connection that the practice of supporting the view that Tamil is a language of the suffix agglutinating type, by illustrations involving the suffix kal (palanai, palankalai) may easily be called into question, in view of the fact, that, according to Tolkāppiyanār, there may have been a period in the history of Tamil when forms like palanai

^{1.} J. A. Dixeme Serie Tome 17, Le Pluriel Primitif en-M.

were used both in ouranpāl and palavinpāl and forms like aracarai were used to denote palarpāl.

3.213242. Forms having ōţû as the third case-suffix are rare in the works of Sangam period, but in later works they occur more frequently than the forms with oţu.

> Malar magaļōdu (with Lakṣmi). (I. A. Vol. 22, p. 70-M. M. P.)

> Kol-kalirrōḍum (even with war-bulls). Do.
> Muṇi tâṇ umaiyōṭù muyaṅki (Śiva having been in the
> company of Pārvatī). (T. 110. 5.)
> Annu āvarkula-k-kativātu (en that day with (Krena) the

Annu āyarkula-k-koţiyōtu (en that day with (Kṛṣṇa) the banner of the families of shepherds). (P. T. 37.1.)

3.2113243. The sixth case-suffixes mentioned by the author of Viracoliyam are utaiyan, etc., and his commentator gives ivan korranutaiyan, ival korranutaiyal etc. as examples for the same. But korranutaiyan, korranataiyal, etc. are only appellative verbs, and hence they cannot be words of the sixth case. He might have given utaiya as a sixth case-suffix for which he had many examples from the literature and inscriptions which were in existence in his time. The following are some of them:

Ceytavanuțaiya—tevikku (T. 106.3). Mun-cirai-c-cavaiyāruțaiya (T. A. S. i. H. O. P. 5). Paviliya caranattūruțaiya (Ibid. p. 8).

3.21325. It will be interesting to note here that the practice of attributing case values to certain words became widely prevalent in the medieval and modern periods though it was not entirely unknown in early Sangam works. For instance, kal, ticai etc., were occasionally used in the place of the seventh case-suffix in early Sangam works, poruțțů in the place of the fourth and konțů in the place of the third (e.g.)

Ūrkkāl nivanta (Ka. T. i. 334, 1). Tenricai yāay kuṭi-y-inrāyin (P. N. 132). Ilittarporuṭṭū (K. 784). Oru-kaṇai koṇṭū mū-v-ciyal uṭaṛṛi (P. N. 55).

There are numerous such instances in the works of later period and in colloquial speech (e.g.)

uţan as third case-suffix—avanuţan, ivan vantān (Colloq.)
pārkkilum as 5th case-suffix—avanaippārkkilum, ivan nallan
(Colloq.)

kāţţilum Do, avaṇa-k-kāţţilum ivaṇ nallaṇ (Colloq.)

ițam as the 7th case-suffix—ūrițam iruntân (Colloq.)
ițai Do. irun kănițai (Kampar, A. 232, 28.)

3.21326. INFLUENCE OF VĪRACŌLIYAM ON NAŅŪL. The author of Naṇṇūl follows the author of Viracōliyam in stating kal as the pluralising particle of uyartiṇai nouns also, ōṭu and āi as suffixes of the 3rd case and il as a suffix of the seventh. But it is refreshing to see that Naṇṇūlār wisely refrained from introducing before all case-suffixes in the singular and after neuter plural the imaginary 'cu' which the author of Vīracōliyam, owing to his Sanskritic obsession, did not hesitate to adopt.

- 3.2133. CLASSIFICATION: Though Tamil grammarians include pronouns in a comprehensive class called peyar-c-col which comprises nouns also, it seems to me proper to treat here noun declension separately from pronominal declension having regard to the fact that vowel-gradation which is a prominent feature of the latter type of declension is not found in the former.
- 3.21331. DECLENSION OF NOUNS: The declension of nouns in Tamil is much easier than that in Sanskrit. It is so fundamentally different as to form one of the points to show that Tamil and Sanskrit belong to entirely different families of languages. It may be divided into two classes: (1) declension of a uyartinai nouns and (2) that of antinai nouns. Uyartinai nouns may be classified under two heads:—(a) those that denote their tinai by their endings like aracan, vanikan, kariyan, kariyal, etc., (b) those that do not denote their tinai by their endings like āṭūu, makaṭūu, tantai, annai, nankai, makkaļ, māntar, etc.

Ancient Period

(1) a. Āṇṇāl: Peṇṇāl: Palarpāl: 1st case kariyan kariyal kariyar

2nd case karıyanai	kariyalai	kariyarai
3rd case kariyanotů	kariyaļoţů	kariyaroţü
kariyanan	kariyaļān	kariyarān
4th case kariyarků	kariyalukkü	kariyarkkü
5th case kariyanin	kariyalin	kariyari <u>n</u>
6th case kariyaratü	kariyalatii	kariyaratü
kariyarkû	kariyalukkü	kariyarkkü
7th case kariyankan	kariyalkan	kariyarkan
8th case kariyāy	kariyāy	karıyir
	M 33 (MICH 10	kariyîrê.
But makan has fo	r its plural makār. (e.g.	makārēţū-Pattu.
431.253)		
(1) b. (i)	Āņpāl:	Palarþāl:
1st case	tantai	tantaiyar
2nd case	tantaiyai	tantaiyarai
3rd case	lantasyoții 🕖	tantaiyarotü
de	tantaiyān	tantaiyarān
Etc.	Etc.	ANADO TOTO
(ii)	Penpal:	Palarpāl:
1st case	annai	annaiyar
2nd case	annaiyai	annaiyarai
3rd case	annaiyotü	annaiyarotü
	annaiyān	annaiyarārn

But makal has for its plural makalir in the ancient period (e. g. tinai kuru makalir—Pattu. 435 342) and makalirkal also in the later periods (e. g. itai-y-ira makalirkal Kampar. B. 49.14).

Etc.

There are certain nouns which are always plural in number. E. g. māntar, makkaļ. The words āṭūu and makaṭūu, it appears to me, were used only in the singular number in the ancient period.

Onran pāl:	Palavin pāl:	
1st case ā	ā, ākkaļ	
2nd case āviņai	āviņai, ākkaļai	
3rd case āviņoļu, āviņāņ	āviņotu, ākkaļots	
	āviņān, ākkaļān	

Etc.

Onran pal:
4th case āvirkū
5th case āvinin
6th case āvinatū
7th case āvinkan
8th case āvē

Palavin pal :

āvirkii, ākkāļukkii

āviņin, ākkaļin

āviņatii, ākkaļatii

āviņkaņ, ākkaļinkaņ

āvē, ākkalē.

It deserves to be noted here that the cāriyai or flexional increment is added between the base of the noun and the case-suffix more commonly in the case of aāriṇai nouns than in that of uyartiṇai nouns. There is a peculiarity in Tamil that all finite forms of verbs like uṇṭēṇ uṇṭēm, uṇṭār, uṇṭāṇ, uṇṭār, uṇṭārkaļ, etc., take case-suffixes after them like the forms uṇṭavaṇ, uṇṭavaḷ, etc., when they are used as participial nouns. Such a usage is not found in Sanskrit except that the third person, singular, present parasmaipada of verbs is used as a substantive denoting the corresponding root and declined as such. e. g. saktuḥ sacatēḥ (M. B. i, 4.12.) which means that the word saktuḥ is derived from the root sac.

The following may serve as examples for using the finite verbs as participial nouns.

> Vempukingēnai (me who am feeling sorry). (T. V. 6.78.) Nāyēṇai-p-poruṭpaṭuttù (having treated with grace me who am like a dog). (T. 31.3.)

Umakkē āļāy-t-tirikingōmukkii (to us who are wandering as servants to you alone). (P. T. 92.4.)

Neţumālukku aruļ ceytāṇai (him who has shown grace to Viṣṇu). (T. 217.2.)

Tēvarkaļukku amutu īntāṇai (to him who supplied the devas with nectar). (T. 217.2.)

3.213311. EXAMINATION OF DR. CALDWELL'S VIEWS: Dr. Caldwell says that 'the masculine singular suffix of the Tamil is an, ān or ōn. Ān, the shorter formative is that which appears in the demonstrative pronoun avan (a-(v)-an)'.1 He further says that 'indeed, ān and ōn have evidently been

C. D. G. 223.

formed not from an, but from a-v-an by the softening of the euphonic v and the coalescence of the vowels',1

The first statement that an, $\bar{a}n$ or $\bar{o}n$ is the masculine singular suffix falls to the ground from the mention made by Tolkäppiyanär that it is only n^2 that denotes it. It is shown in my article on Cutteluttu³ that a of an is a demonstrative root.

As regards the second point that ān and ōn are the corrupted forms of avan, it may be stated that 'a' and 'a' never coalesce into ā in Tamil, nor can v be softened to u so that a and u may become ō as in Sanskrit. Besides we would have to explain the origin of an in avan. We should be moving in a circle if we say that the masculine singular suffix an came from ān which came from avan, and avan was formed from a and an. Ān itself may be changed to ōn by making ā more a close vowel, in the same way as the final a in Sanskrit is pronounced like o by Bengalis.

Similarly it may be said with respect to the feminine singular suffix !.

Dr. Caldwell says 'that every Dravidian noun is naturally neuter, or destitute of gender, and it becomes masculine or feminine solely in virtue of the addition of a masculine or feminine suffix'.4

In our present state of knowledge, it may not be possible to determine conclusively whether inflected forms in Tamil with gender and number suffixes arose from certain proethnic Dravidian vocables in accordance with what Jespersen⁵ calls the theory of secretion through a process of disentanglement of final elements and their adaptation as suffixes; or whether, as Dr. Caldwell seems to be inclined to believe, such forms in Tamil arose from pro-ethnic Dravidian neuters through the composi-

C. D. G. 225.

Na&kā norrē y-āţūu v-ari-col. (Tol. Col. 5.)

^{3.} J. O. R. Vol. i, p. 4.

⁴ C. D. G. 229.

J. L. P. 383.

tion of certain pronominal elements denoting gender and number. However, a careful examination of the oldest available Tamil grammar, viz., Tolkāppiyam emboldens me to say that so far as Tamil, in its earliest period, is concerned, the gender in nouns must have been determined mainly by their meanings and not by their suffixes. It would be of advantage to bear in mind in this connection that Tolkāppiyanār plainly says that the suffixes v, l, r, etc. need not necessarily be used after nouns to indicate gender and number, though they must be invariably used after verbs.¹

Dr. Caldwell says that the epicene pluralising particles in Tamil are ar, ār, ōr; ir, īr²; mar, mār³ and var⁴.

Since ar, ār, and ōr are used in connection with third person plurals and ir and īr in connection with second person plurals, it is evident that 'r' alone denotes the epicene plural as is mentioned by Tolkāppiyanār.

As regards 'var' he says that it is the abbreviated form of avar, on the basis of its presence in the word nālvar. But it seems to me that, since v is only an intervocalic element in oruvar, iruvar, mūvar, aivar, aruvar, it may be said that v in nālvar has crept in through analogy with the above forms; or it may have been the corrupted form of mār, since m can change to v very easily.

What is the origin of mar? It is worth investigating whether it is made up of the two pluralising particles m and r with a connecting vowel a. M is found to be the pluralising particle in the first personal pronoun $n\bar{a}m$, $y\bar{a}m$ and in the oblique case base em and in the verbal terminations em, $\bar{e}m$, kum, tum, tum and tum of the first person plural. I am glad to see that M.J. Vinson

Irutiņai maruņķi ņ-aim-pā I-ariyu
 Īrriņiņ r-icaiķķum patiņā r-eļuttun
 Torran tāmē viņai-y-oţu varum-ē. (Tol. Col. 10.)

^{2.} C. D. G. 239.

^{3.} Ibid. 240.

^{4.} Ibid. 241.

already suggested this in 1911 in his article La Pluriel Primitif em-M-(J.A. Dixieme Serie Tome 17).

Again, Dr. Caldwell says that the verbal terminations mar, $m\bar{a}r$ and $man\bar{a}r$ are not identical with the epicene pluralising articles mar and $m\bar{a}r$, since in verbs m denotes the future tense as b or v and hence it may have been the modification of b or v. But this cannot be taken as absolutely true since Tolkappiyanar has not definitely stated the tense signs, and makes us infer that the tense was determined mostly by context. This will be dealt with in detail in the section on verbs.

- 3.21332. DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS:—Pronouns may be divided into (1) Personal Pronouns (2) Demonstrative Pronouns (2) Reflexive Pronouns (4) Interrogative Pronouns (5) Relative Pronouns (6) Pronouns derived from numerals and (7) Indefinite Pronouns.
- 3.213321. PERSONAL PRONOUNS:—Personal pronouns consist of pronouns of the first person and the second person. There is no personal pronoun in Tamil for the third person since the demonstrative pronoun itself serves its purpose. The declension of the first and second personal pronouns in the ancient, medieval and modern periods is as follows:—
- 3.2133211. FIRST PERSONAL PRONOUN (ANCIENT PERIOD).

Case:	Singular:	Plural:	
1st case	yāņ	yām	nām
2nd case	ennai	emmai	namniai
3rd case	ennān)	(emmän	(nammā <u>n</u>
	ennoții }	emmoții	l nammoțů
4th case	enakkii	emakkü	namakků
5th case	ennin	emmi <u>n</u>	nammin
6th case	enatu)	[ematis	(namatů
	enakkii S	l emakků	l namakků
7th case	enkan	enkan	nankan
	(MEDIEVAL AND	MODERN PER	RIODS)
	Singular:	Plura	:

nan

1st case yāṇ 2nd case eṇṇai yām, yānkaļ; nām, nānkaļ emmai, enkaļai; nammai Singular : 3rd case ennāl, ennotu, ennōtu

4th case enakků (někků colloq.)
5th case ennin
6th case enatů (if it is followed
by a singular noun)
ena (if it is followed
by a plural noun)

7th case enkan, ennil, etc.

emmāl, enkaļāl; nammāl
emmōţū, enkaļōţū; nammōţū
emmoţū, enkaļoţū; nammoţū
emakkū, enkaļoţū; nammoţū
emakkū, enkaļoţū; nammin
ematū, enkaļatū; nammin
ematū, enkaļatū; namatū (if it is
followed by a singular noun)
ema enkaļa; nama (if it is followed by a piural noun)
enkan, enkalinkan, nankan, etc.

Plural:

(The collurupu like poruțțu, etc. mentioned by the author of Viracoliyam and the later grammarians are also added in all periods.)

YAN NAN: As regards the first person singular nominative Tolkappiyanar has mentioned only yan. The authors of Viracolliyam and Nannul and the later grammarians have mentioned nan also. They have done so since nan began to be used in literature before the time of the author of Viracolliyam. The following quotations may serve as examples for the same. Nan centu nati (I having approached) (P. T. 128.1.); nan or tunai kanen (I do dot find any help-mate) (T. V. 25.10.). The form nan may have been formed through analogy with nam, the nominative case plural.

Ennois: As regards ennois, the third case singular, it is evident that it has been formed from ennois by the lengthening of o to o.

Ena: As regards a in ena as a sixth case-suffix, vide 3.213232. supra.

Yām, yānkaļ; nām, nānkaļ: Tolkāppiyanār has mentioned only yām and nām.² The author of Vīracoliyam has mentioned

- Tāŋ-vā ŋ-eŋŋu m-āyi r-irutiyum Mēŋ mup peyaroţum vērupā ţ-ilavē. (Tol. E. 193.)
- Tā-nā m-ēnņu makara v-irutiyum Yām-e n-irutiyu m-atanā r-anna Ā-ey y-ākum yām-e n-iruti Yā-vayin yakara-mey keţutal vēnţum Ēŋai y-iranţu neţu-mutal kuţukum.

in V. V. 91 that nam is used as honorific singular and nankal as plural. Its commentator adds yam to the former and yankal to the latter. Evidently yānkal and nānkal are cases of double plurals. It is worth noting that kal can be used only after m the pluralising particle, unlike some uyartınai nouns like vacukkal, nonpikal where kal is directly added to the singular form of the noun. Such forms are not sanctioned by Tolkappiyanar. are found, it seems, for the first time in Cilappatikaram. (e.g. yānkaļum-Cilap. 298.161.) Though Nannūlār mentions only yām, nām in Na. 287, yet the forms yānkaļ and nānkaļ are acceptable to him under the general sutra No. 278. The later grammarians have followed the authors of Vīracoliyam and Nannul. The reason why the author of Viracoliyam says so is that examples where nām is used as honorific singular, and nānkaļ and yānkaļ as plurals were found in plenty in the literature written before his time. The necessity for the forms yānkal, nānkal may have arisen from the desire of the speakers to distinguish the plural from the honorific singular. The following quotations may serve as examples:-

Yām piņutta neţunal yāṇai (Elephant caught by me yesterday) (P.N. 162.5.) Here yām is honorific singular.

Năm tolutum elu nencame (I worship; oh! mind rise) (P.T. 120.1.) Here năm is honorific singular.

Nānkaļ uyyēmē (We will not live.) (P.T. 92.1.)

Yānkaļum nīņerippaţarkutum (We shall also go through the long path.) (Cılap. 469.4.)

Enkaļai, enkaļāl, etc. These are double plurals formed from the base em, but not from the other base nam.

Ema, enkala; nama: The reason for the appearance of these forms is the same as that for ena.

The following quotations may serve for the forms of double plurals mentioned above.

> Nankal perumāņai (our lord) (T.V. 7.67). Enkal perumāņ (our lord) (T.V. 7.75).

See f. n. 37 infra. (ibid. 189.)

Enkaļ māl iraivan (our lord Viṣṇu) (P.T. 112.2).

Enkaļukku aruļ ceykinra īcaņai (God who shows grace to us) (P.T. 151.3).

It may be noted that words having the sixth case-suffix omitted are much larger in number than those with them.

N in yan, ennai, ennoin, etc. This may have been the particle denoting the masculine singular. Originally, these words may have been used by the male member of a family and they may have been used even by the female member. But Dr. Caldwell does not agree with this view.1

He says "I think it unsafe, however, to conclude from this or from any of the facts mentioned, that the initial n of nān is of modern origin....... Nān is represented as we have seen, as alternating with yān in the most authoritative grammar of the classical Tamil." He has made this statement only on the strength of Nannūl. He would not have made this statement had he seen that Tolkāppiyanār has not made mention of nān.

Dr. Caldwell says "In all the Dravidian dialects with the exception of Canarese, there are two plurals of the pronoun of the first person, of which one denotes, not only the party of the speaker, but also the party addressed, and may be called the plural inclusive; the other excludes the party addressed and denotes only the party of the speaker and may be called plural exclusive. The colloquial Tamil forms the plural exclusive from nām, the ordinary regular plural by addition of gal, which is properly a neuter sign of plurality." This is not wholly true even so far as the modern colloquial Tamil is concerned, since nām may also denote third persons standing by the side of the speaker. Since at the time of Tolkāppiyanār, there were not two forms, but only one form, there was absolutely no room for the classification as the plural exclusive and the plural inclusive. The author of Viracōliyam says that nām was used as honorific singu-

^{1.} C. D. G. 370.

Ibid. 367.

Ibid. 414 and 415.

lar and $n\bar{a}nkal$ as plural.¹ But the author of Nannul mentions in connection with the personal terminations at the end of verbs that am and $\bar{a}m$ are used in the first person plural to include the person spoken to, and em, $\bar{e}m$ and $\bar{o}m$ to exclude the person spoken to.²

 $N\bar{e}kk\bar{u}$: The initial vowel e in $enakk\bar{u}$ is dropped and consequently a following n is changed to e and then lengthened to \bar{e} by compensation. Since n cannot be initial, it is changed to n. The existence of two different bases en and nam in the oblique cases, respectively of the singular and plural in Tamil is similar to that of the bases mat and asmat of the 1st person singular and plural in Sanskrit. Besides, the element m is found in the plural bases of both.

Collective first personal pronoun: There is a collective first personal pronoun elām mentioned by Nannūlār (Na. 287). This remains the same in all cases, and is preceded by the oblique forms of yām and nām as emmai-y-elām, nammai-y-elām, eṅkaļai-y-elām, etc. Another collective personal pronoun is ellām which is said to be used for all personal pronouns. (Tol. E. 190 & 191, and Na. 285.) This ellām was declined at the time of Tolkāppiyanār as ellānammaiyum, ellānammānum, etc., if it referred to first or second personal pronoun or uyartinai demonstrative pronoun. It seems to me that, since the forms ellārum and ellārum and their oblique forms were exclusively used in the second, and the third, person respectively, ellānammaiyum began to be used only to denote the first person at a later time. (Na. 245, K.) But at the present day it is not thus

Unnum-ennum-tannum yāvum-avvum-ivvu m-uvvum-evvum
Ennum-ivarrin-mun nī-nān-rān-cu-v-varil yā-mutala
Vannum-vallun-tuvvum vaiyuñ-cirappi-nīr nāmoţu-tām
Pinnil-aintum-var palarir-kallōţū-var kal-l-enpavī. (V. V. 9.)

Am-ām cupana munnilai y-āraiyum
 Em-ēm ōm-ivai paţarkkai y-āraiyum
 Um-ūr ka-ţa-ra iru-pā l-āraiyum
 Tan-n-otû paţukkun tanmai-p panmai. (Na. 333.)

130 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL.

declined, the form ellam itself being used after the case forms nammai, nammāl, etc. (e. g. nammai-y-ellām, nammāl-ellām, etc.) Sanskrit does not have a similar collective first personal pronoun.

3.2133212. Second Personal Pronoun (Ancient Period).

Singular: Plural. Case: 1177 nīvir2 1st case nummai 2nd case ninnai nummoții, nummăn 3rd case ninnotù, ninnan ninakkii numakkü 4th case 5th case ninnin memmin ninatů, ninakků numatù, numakkù 6th case ninkan 7th case nunkan (Medieval and Modern Periods). Singular:

Case:

Plural:

1st case ni

3nīvir, nīvir, nīr; nīvirkal, 30 2003 nīvirkaļ, nīrkaļ, nīm, nīnkaļ.

2nd case ninnai, nunnai, unnai 3rd case ninnāl, nunnāl, unnāl ninnotů, nunnotů, unnotu.

nummai, ummai, unkalai. nummāl ummāl, unkalāl.

nummotu, ummotu, unkalotu.

ninnotu, nunnotu, un- nummotu, ummotu, unkalotu. nōtu

4th case ninakků, nunakků, un- numakků umakků, uňkalukků. akku

(nökkü-Collog.)

1. Ni-y-e n-oru-peyar netumutal kurukum A-vayi n-akara m-orrā kummē. (Tol. E. 180.) Avarrul

Nī-v-en kilavi y-orumai-k k-urittē. (Tol. Col. 189.) Niyir ni-y-eya varüun kilavi

Pareri pilave y-utan-moli-p porula. (ibid. 188.) Epai-k kilavi panmai-k k-uritte. (ibid 190.)

3. Tanmai pay-nan yam.nam munnılai Ellir niyir nivir nir ni Allana patarkkai ellä m-enal potu. (Na. 285.) Case: Singular:

Plural.

5th case ninnin, nunnin, unnin 6th case ninatù, nunatù, unatù nina, nuna, una

nummių, ummių, unkalių. numatu, umatu, unkalatu, numa, uma.

7th case ninkan, nunkan, unkan, nunkan, unkan, unkalinkan, etc.

Niyir: The nominative form niyir is said to have been derived from the oblique case form num by Tolkāppiyaṇārī and hence it may be said that it was later than the oblique case form num. It also seems to me that it may have been derived from ni by the addition of ir the pluralising particle of the second person.

NIR and NIRKAL are mentioned by the author of Viracollivam. Nir is only the contracted form of nivir or nivir, and nirkal is evidently double plural. Its commentator mentions that, sometimes, nivirkal and nivirkal also are used.²

NIM is found in Cīvakacintāmaņi and it is stated in its commentary that it is a ticai-c-col. It may have been borrowed from Canarese or may have been formed from nī through analogy with nām, tām, etc. This form is not found in any work written before Cīvakacintāmaṇi.

NIYIR, NIVIR and NIR are mentioned by the author of Nannūl. Nīvir may have been formed by the substitution of v for y between ī and i in nī+ir through analogy with ivviţam (i-v-v-iţam), etc. Since it is not mentioned by Tolkāppiyanār and it is not found in the earlier Sangam works, it may have been of later origin.

NĪNKAĻ is a double plural formed from the plural nīm.

This form is not found in works written before Cīvakacintāmaņi.

It is the only form that is now very largely used not only as honorific singular like nīr but also as plural.

Panmaiyil nīrkaļ, nīnkaļ....enavum varum; nīrkaļ enpatū nīyirkaļ nīvirkaļ ena ātēcam ātalum uņţū. (V. V. 9. Comm.)

^{2.} V. V. 9. comm. cf. f. n. under 4.1 supra.

132 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

The following quotations may serve as examples for the forms mentioned above :-

Nīyō peruma (you are great). (P. N. 5.3.)

Ninnai y-innāturra v-aranil kūrrē (the god of death who has unmeritoriously taken away your life). (P.N. 255.3.)

Ninnotu puraiya (to fight with you). (Pari. 11.67.)

Ninakku irumpu tanmai (your wonderful quality).
(Pari. 23.3.)

Ninnin ciranta nin tāļiņai (your feet which are superior to you). (Pari. 29.62.)

Niyiru m-irunilan katanta (even you having crossed the wide tract). (Pattu. 131.28.)

Varutu niyirum (you too better come). (Pattu. 100.143.)

Nīr...tolumiņē (you better worship). (T. 19.1.)

Nīr tuļankal vēntā (you will not desire). (C. C. 745.)

Aţiyēn vantaţaivanīmē (I, the slave, will resort to you).
(C. C. 563.)

Nīńkał nōkkumin (you better see). (C. C. 1045.)

Nīyır aivīrum (you five). (Kampar. A. 725.67.)

Unkaļ kulattutittörkaţkellām (to all who are born in your family). (Kampar. K. 247.78.)

What is the origin of the base 'UN' in the singular found in the medieval and modern periods? It seems to me that it was evolved out of the base nin of the ancient period in the following way:—First of all we see the form nun used in the following sentences:—

Nuna cīrați nova (to make your little feet suffer).
(C. C. 1517.)

Nunpati-p-peyarkkum (going to your residence). (P. K. i, 32.93.)

of Civakacintāmaņi and Perunkatai, respectively, works written between the 9th and 10th cent. A. D. Nun may have been formed from nin by changing i to u through analogy with the vowel u found in the plural base num. Then in collocations like nunkō-nunnai,..(M. M. 283.100) which admit of being split up in two ways—nunkōn+nunnai and nunkōn+

unnai, the latter alternative may have been adopted, and thus the form un may have come into being. Now that the first appearance of un is accounted for, it would scarcely be difficult to imagine how such a form may easily have become generalised. The following illustrations would make clear how such wrong splittings not infrequently serve as fruitful sources of new doublets in phrases involving sandhi between final n and initial n.

For instance in nourru muttu nanuntu kanya (T. V. 1037.), the expression nanuntu is shown by Dr. Pope to be capable of being split in two ways as nan+nuntu and nan+untu though the earlier form nuntu appears in the sentence nuntum pantapperumai (T. V. 6.187). From this it will be seen how the doublet untu arose beside the earlier nuntu. Similarly in 'putalvaray polintanuntai' found in the Vipitanan-ataikkala-p-patalam of the Yuttakantam in Kamparamayanam, the expression polintanuntai was wrongly split into polintan and untai and the doublet untai arose beside the earlier nuntai recognised by Tolkappiyanar. (Cf. Tol. E. 67.)

Forms with the base un are not at all found in the early works of Sangam period like Puranānūrů, Akanānūrů etc. They begin to appear in very few instances in Maniměkalai and are freely used in Těvāram, Tiruvācakam, Nālāyirappirapantam and other works written between the 5th and 9th centuries and they have almost ousted the old forms with the base nin in the modern period. The following may serve as examples for the same.

Nin peruntunpam (your great suffering). (M.M. 172.43.)
Orutani ningāy ungiram agintēn (you stood alone and
I understood your power). (M. M. 50.96.)

Unnațiyen unai ninaintal (if I, your servant think of you). (T. 31.2.) (unai for unnai).

Unnai yān pirinta nāļ (the day when I gave birth to you). (C. C. 2100.)

Unatu ațiyē caranamê (your feet are my refuge). (P. T. 150.9.)

Unmēl ātaram peritu (regard for you is great). (P. T. 46.9.)

Un manattāl (with your mind). (P. T. 44.1.)

Un aṭiyār-tāļ paṇivōm (we will worship the feet of your devotees). (T. V. 7.36.)

Uṇakkē aṭaikkalam (we are under you). (T. V. 7.73.)

Uṇṇai-p-pirāṇ-āka (thinking you a stranger). (T. V.

7.35.)

Similarly the base num may have been replaced by um, Then the particle kal may have been added to the base um so that we have two bases um and unkal. In modern times, the base um is used in connection with honorific singular, and unkal with plural. The following may serve as examples for the same:—

> Umakku inta nāṭṭē vantu toṇṭarāṇa nāṅkaļ (we who have come to this country and become your devotees). (P. T. 93.7.)

> Umakkē āļāy (being your men), (P. T. 92.4.)
>
> Unkaļ kulattutittörkkellām (to all who have been born in your family), (Kampar, K. 247.78.)

NOKKU: The first syllable in unakkii is dropped on the principle of economy of effort and a is made the guttaro-labial vowel a by the influence of the labial u, before it is dropped.

The existence of two different bases nin and num in the ancient period for the oblique cases respectively of the second person singular and second person plural in Tamil is similar to that of the base tvat and yuşmat in the singular and plural of the second person in Sanskrit. Also the elements u and m are found in the plural bases of both.

COLLECTIVE SECOND PERSONAL PRONOUN: Tolkāppiyaṇār mentions that ellīrum is second person and should be
declined as ellīr-nummaiyum, ellīr-nummoṭum, etc. (Tol.E. 192).
Naṇṇūlār mentions elīr in the nominative case (Na. 287) and
ellīrnummaiyum, etc. in the oblique cases (Na. 246). Besides
ellām may be used along with the oblique cases of the second
person. But at present, the use of the oblique case forms of
ellīrum have died out and those of ellārum, the demonstrative
form in uyartiṇai and its poetical form ellōrum are used instead.

e.g. unkaļ ellāraiyum vara-c-connāļ or unkaļ ellāraiyum vara-cconnāļ (she asked all of you to come). Sanskrit does not possess a similar collective second personal pronoun.

- 3.213322. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS are of three kinds:—(1) Remote Demonstrative Pronoun (2) Proximate Demonstrative Pronoun and (3) Intermediate Demonstrative Pronoun.
- 3.2133221. REMOTE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN assumes in the ancient period the following forms in the nominative case—avan in masculine singular, aval in feminine singular, avar in epicene plural, atu or anti in neuter singular and avai and av in neuter plural. (e.g.) avvum piravum (they and others) (Pari. 26.23). But in medieval and modern periods there are two forms avar and avarkal in epicene plural and two forms avai and avaikal in neuter plural. The oblique cases are formed by adding case-suffixes to the nominative forms without any change.
- 3.2133222. Similarly the forms of the PROXIMATE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN in the nominative case are ivan, ival, ivar and ivarkal, itu or iktú and ivai, iv and ivaikal. (e.g.) ivvum uvvum (these and those) (Pari. 26.23). The oblique cases too are formed in the same manner as in the Remote Demonstrative Pronoun.
- 3.2133223. Similarly the forms of the INTERMEDIATE DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN in the nominative case are uvan, uval, uvar, utu or u&tû, uvai and uv. These forms are gradually going out of use.
- R. Swaminatha Aiyar¹ says, 'Old Tamil usage, however, clearly indicates that, in its inception, u was a far demonstrative and it is used as such in the Oldest Tamil works.' He derives u from ava through the intermediate stages \tilde{v} and \tilde{u} . Then he says that 'the demonstrative element u is of comparatively late origin.' The examples he quotes where u, according to him, is far demonstrative are from works which are later than Tolkāppiyam.

 [&]quot; Aryan Affinities of Dravidian Pronoun" read in the Third All India Oriental Conference, Madras, p. 7.

In Tolkāppiyam, uvaņ, uvaļ, utu and uvai are mentioned along with avaņ, avaļ, atu and avai. If both the demonstrative elements a and u had had the same function at the time of Tolkāppiyaṇār, one of them would have died out even at his time. U may have been used in his time to denote objects at a distance and a to denote objects at remote distance.

Avar and ivar were used as honorific singular and avarkal and ivarkal as plurals at the time of the author of Viracoliyam (V. V. 9). But now avar, avarkal, ivar and ivarkal are all used both as honorific singular and plural. The a in Tamil avay, aval, etc., and i in ivay, ival, etc. respectively have their parallels in Sanskrit, in a of tat and i of idam.

There was a collective third person plural pronoun which had the form of cllārum in the nominative case and cllārtammaiyum, cllārtammoṭum, etc. in the oblique cases. The insertion of tam is almost extinct in modern speech. Similarly, cllām in the nominative case and cllānammaiyum, cllānammoṭum, etc. and cllāvaṛṛaiyum and cllāvaṛṛoṭum, etc. in the oblique cases were used along with pronouns of the epicene plural and neuter plural respectively. (Tol. E. 190 and 191.) Even in ancient period the forms cllāraiyum and cllāroṭum, etc. were used in place of cllānammaiyum, cllānammoṭum, etc. e.g. kaṭavuṭar cllārkhum (to all gods). (Ka. T. ii, 559.36.) In the later periods if they are used along with the nouns in oblique cases which they qualify, the nominative form itself is used. e.g. uyirkkelām (to all living beings). (Kampar. B. 3312.)

3.213323. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS are respectively tān and tām in the nominative singular and plural. They are shortened to tan and tam in the oblique cases before they take case-suffixes. Tām also takes kaļ in the modern period as other pronouns. The form tānkaļ is now used as an honorific second person singular also, when it is followed by a verb of the second person plural.

R. Swaminatha Aiyar says that "tan was in its inception merely a pronoun of the third person, and that a reflexive meaning has come to be superimposed so as to overshadow its original sense to such an extent that it has now come to be called the Reflexive Pronoun". From the examples he has quoted it seems to me that the reverse may have been the case; for since there were the demonstrative pronouns avan, aval, atu, etc., there would be no need for another kind of pronoun of the third person in tān. Tolkāppiyanār states that tān and tām are respectively used in the singular and plural. He has not mentioned that they should be used only in the third person; besides, from the context of the sūtras dealing with tān and tām, it is clear that he thinks that they could be used along with the pronouns of all persons and genders. Since the examples quoted by R. Swaminatha Aiyar are from works later than Tolkāppiyam, it seems to me that tān and tām were originally reflexive in origin and their use has been so extended that they are used even as demonstrative pronouns.

R. Swaminatha Aiyar traces tān to R. V. tanu and tām to tman² but in the present state of my knowledge, I cannot agree with him.

3.213324. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN: The forms of Interrogative Pronouns that are found in Tolkāppiyam are yāvaṇ, yāvaṭ, yāvaṭ, yāvaṭ, yāvaṭ, yāvaṭ, yāvaṭ, and evaṇ. Tolkāppiyaṇār says that yāar can be used as the logical predicate of masculine singular noun, feminine singular noun and epicene plural nouns, and that evaṇ may be used along with neuter singular and neuter plural and also when the gender of the object that is questioned is not clear. The oblique forms too at the time of Tolkāppiyaṇār had the base yā. In the medieval

^{1.} Ibid. p. 45.

Ibid. p. 47.

Yāa r-ennum viņāviņ kiļavi A-t-tiņai marunkin mu-p-pārku m-urittē.

⁽Tol. Col. 219.)

A-t-tiņai marunki p-iru-pār kiļavikkum Okku m-enpa v-evan-en viņāvē. (ibid. 219.)

Yātu-eva n-ennu m-āyiru kiļaviyum
 Ariyā-p poruļ-vayir ceriya-t tönrum. (ibid. 31.)

period evaikal and evarkal also were used. In the modern period the forms, evan, eval, evar, etu and evai, evanai, evalai, evarai, etai or etanai, evarrai have almost taken the place of yāvan, yāvaļ, yāvar, yātu, yāvai, yāvaņai, yāvaļai, yāvarai, yātai or yātaņai, yāvarrai, etc. Hence the original interrogative root was yā, But Tolkāppiyanār himself mentions an interrogative form evan and takes ē as one interrogative root and makes use of such words as e-p-porul, e-p-peyar, etc. Hence it seems to me that, before the time of Tolkappiyanar, ya may have been the base of the forms in the nominative case e.g. yavarum pirarum-(Pari-55.8.) and e the base of forms in the oblique cases and that, at the time of Tolkappiyanar, the base ya was generalised throughout e.g. yāvarkkum cāyal niņatū-(Pari, 9.55.) and at the later periods e began to be generalised throughout e.g. evanum itai-cceyvān (any one can do this), evarkkum itu eļitu, (this is easy for any one to do) etc .- (Collog.)

Dr. Caldwell thinks that $y\bar{a}$ was the original form and that \bar{e} must have been corrupted from it. But since the root e is found in the form evan mentioned by him and \bar{e} is used as syntactic interrogative from the earliest times, it is also probable that e or \bar{e} may have been the original and $y\bar{a}$ may have been formed from it through analogy with $y\bar{a}n$, which may have been formed from the oblique base en.

In addition to these interrogative pronouns, there are three interrogative roots, \$\bar{a}\$, \$\bar{e}\$ and \$\bar{o}\$ which serve as syntactic interrogatives and are added at the end of nouns or verbs. e.g. Avanā vantān \$\bar{e}\$ (did \$he\$ come). Avanē vantān \$\bar{e}\$ (did \$he\$ come). Avanē vantān \$\bar{e}\$ (did \$he\$ come). Avanē vantān \$\bar{e}\$ (did \$he\$ come). Some of these as \$\bar{a}\$ and \$\bar{o}\$ denote mere question and the third \$\bar{e}\$ denotes doubt etc.

3.213325. RELATIVE PRONOUNS: Tolkāppiyanār and other grammarians have not stated anything about relative pronouns. The purpose of the relative pronouns is served by the participles e.g.

Unți-koţuttör uyir-koţuttörē (food-givers are life givers).
(P.N. 18.19.)

Ceyvinai-k-k-etirnta tevvar (enemies who were against the actions done). (P.N. 6.11.) Nirayañ kolpavaroţû (with those who go to hell). (P.N. 5.6.) Cērvāṇai-k-kaṇṭāl (if you see him who will mix with

Cērvāṇai-k-kaṇṭāl (if you see him who will mix with you). (T. 25.2.)

But in Manimēkalai and some of the later works the interrogative pronouns began to be used in certain instances as relative pronouns. This, it seems to me, is due to the adaptation of Sanskrit sentence form in Tamil. For instance, sentences like 'yātonru yātonru mūrttam atu anittam' (whichever is mūrta is anitya) are found in plenty in Manimēkalai. This sentence is exactly the translation of the Sanskrit sentence 'yat yat mūrtam, tal tal anityam'. The same idea may be expressed in Tamil as 'mūrttam ānatu anittam'.

R. Swaminatha Aiyar says that "the Sanskrit masculine yāvān appears to have been one of the earliest relative interrogative forms adopted in Tamil and other Dravidian languages". Two points are to be noted here :- (1) Yāvān is only a relative pronoun in Sanskrit and is never an interrogative, and it exists from a very ancient period; while the relative pronoun in Tamil is a recent introduction and yavay in Tamil was originally an interrogative pronoun; (2) Besides, if yavan was derived from vāvān, why should the second a be shortened in Tamil? Again he says, "the interrogative e which appears initially in composition as in Tamil e-p-peyar . . . has apparently arisen from the imitation of such Sanskrit compounds and combinations as yatkāma yātkā raṇa, etc. This e is another of the earliest relative interrogative forms adopted in the Dravidian languages. It is possible that the base yad has also given rise to the Dravidian pronouns, edu, edi." This appears to me to be an extreme view. The form etu in Tamil is only of later origin. The corresponding form is yavatii in Tolkappiyam. The e of e-k-kalam is formed in the same way as a-k-kālam, i-k-kālam, since, as Dr. Caldwell says, 'the Demonstrative and Interrogative bases are built up on those bases in precisely the same manner and obey one and the same law."

3.213326. PRONOUNS DERIVED FROM NUMERALS: They are of two kinds, viz., oruvan, oruvar, iruvar, mūvar, etc. which belong to uyartinai and onrū, irantū, mūnrū, etc., which belong to aārinai. The oblique cases of the former set of words are formed by adding the case-suffixes directly to them. In the modern period the forms iruvarkaļaiyum, iruvarkaļālum, etc., which are formed by adding the suffix kaļ to iruvar, mūvar, etc., before adding the case-suffixes are also in use. The obique cases of the latter set of words are generally formed by adding the flexional increment an between them and the case-suffixes, e.g. onranaiyum, irantanaiyum, etc. The form oruvar was used at the time of Tolkāppiyanār when the speaker was not sure whether the person he spoke of was a man or a woman. R in oruvar does not denote plural number.

3.213327. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS: palla, pala, cila, ulla, illa—these words which correspond to indefinite pronouns are included by Tolkāppiyaṇār in the list of a&riṇai words. Evidently they are plurals. Their oblique cases are formed by adding the flexional increment varru after them and before casesuffixes. e.g. palla-varrai, cila-varrai, etc.

Palar and cilar are not mentioned by Tolkāppiyaṇār in the list of uyartiṇai nouns; yet he makes use of palar in the sūtra palarari collē (Tol. Col. 7). They are found freely used in Puranāṇūrū and other works later than Tolkāppiyam. e.g. māynticiṇōr palarē (many have died). (P.N. 27.6.) pāṭṭum uṭaiyōr cilarē (there are a few who have songs composed on them). (P. N 27.5.)

The word pira also may be placed on a level with palla, pala, etc. In the medieval period, kal came to be added to it. e.g. poypporul pirakal (other unreal objects). (C. C. 468.) cilai-kalum pirakalum (and other stones). (C. C. 2158). From pira, the form of pirar may have been evolved. e.g. pirar vēņļu pulam (land desired by others). (Pattu. 197.80): pirarum kūļi (even others having joined). (Pattu. 232.518.) This too got the addition of kal in the medieval period. e.g. piranta-v-akkulavikal pirarkal yāvarum (those born infants and others). (C. C. 2834.)

3.214. NUMERALS: 3.2141. CARDINALS: According to Tolkāppiyaṇār, oṇṛù, iraṇṭù, etc. are considered peyar when they mean one person or object, two persons or objects, etc.¹. The number corresponding to seven is ēl at the time of Tolkāppiyaṇār, while ēlu has displaced it in the later periods. There is a tendency at the present day to use the word orupatù in place of pattù. It seems this tendency existed even in the ancient period (cf. Tol. E. 471 and 472) and in the 12th century since it is found in the inscriptions of that period, e. g. nūrṛoru-pattēlum (one hundred and seven). (S. I. I. iii, i. 72.13:) irunūr-rorupattum (two hundred and ten). (S. I. I. iii, i. 78.5.)

The substantive numerals, except onru are sometimes used as numeral adjectives. e.g. iranțu manitarkal (two men). When they are used as adjectives, they are not declined as in Sanskrit, i.e., whatever be the case of the noun that it qualifies, only the nominative form is used. e.g. iranțu manitarai, munru makkalūl etc.

- 3.2142. ORDINAL NUMBERS are formed in Tamil directly from the cardinal numbers by adding ām, the shortened form of the verbal participle ākum. Hence we get the forms onrām, iranṭām, etc. Similarly āvatu is added in place of ām. Hence we get the forms onrāvatu, iranṭāvatu etc. Besides there is another form mutal for the first ordinal.
- 3.22. VINAI: 3.221. DEFINITION: Tolkāppiyaṇār states that viṇai does not take the case-suffix but is found generally denoting the tense also2. This is taken to be the definition of verb by his commentators; but it seems to me that Tolkāppiyaṇār did not intend it to be so, since the word kālamoţû in the above sūtra suggests that the verb denotes something else besides time, and the word niṇaiyuṅkālai suggests that it is not compulsory that the verb should always denote time. This is borne out by the fact that the kurippu-viṇai or appellative verb

cf. Inaittena-k kilakku m-ennu-k-kuri-p-peyarum in Tol. Col. 168. cf. F. N. 7 in p. 106.

Vinai y-ena-p paţuvatu vērrumai koļļātu
 Niņaiyunkālai-k kālamoţu tönrum. (Tol. Col. 198.)

like kāṇakanāṭaṇai (you are the lord of jungle tract) (P. N. 5.3.) does not denote time. Hence, in my opinion, Tolkāppiyaṇār does not intend this sūtra to be the definition of viṇai or verb. Then one may ask what its definition is. I think that he suggests it by the name viṇai itself which means action. In choosing that term he may have had in his mind the statements 'tad ākhyātam yēna bhāvam' (R. V. P. 12.5.) and kriyāvācakam ākhyātam (S. Y. V. P. 8.46).

The author of Vīracoliyam also does not attempt to define viṇai, but suggests it by his word 'tolir patam' in V.K. 1. The author of Nēminātam repeats 'viṇai-y-eṇa-p-paṭupa...' (Tol. Col. 198.) But Naṇṇulār seems to define viṇai as that which denotes ceypavan or doer, karuvi or instrument, nilam or place, ceyal or action, kālam or time and ceyporul or object. This cannot be its definition since a verb cannot denote all the above six things but generally only action and time and person. It is almost certain that this sūtra is only an adaptation of the sūtra

Vinai-y-ē ceyvatu ceya-p-paṭu poruļē Nilan-ē kālań karuvi y-enṛā Innatar k-itu-paya v-āka v-ennum Anṇa marapi n-iraṇṭoṭu-n tokaii Ā-y-eṭ ṭ-eṇṇa toṭin-muta nilaiyē. (Tol. Col. 112.)

where it is said that, generally, eight things precede an action, i.e., vinai2 or kṛti mentioned by Sanskrit logicians, ceyvatů or

Ceypavan karuvi nilañ ceyal kālam Ceyporuļ āzum taruvatu viņaiyē. (Na. 320.)

^{2.} It is worth noting that viņai in this sūtra alone evidently means kṛti. Kṛti is quite different from kriyā. Kṛti denotes the volitional effort of mind and kriyā denotes the activity that follows volition. All the commentators mistake the word viṇai for kriyā or tolil, as may be seen, for example, from the statement of Cēṇāvaraiyar ' vaṇaintāṇ eṇravali, vaṇaitarrolilum, vaṇainta karuttāvum, etc.' and the repetition of the same by the author of Ilakkaṇa-viļakkam (I. V. 226, Comm.). According to their interpretation the meaning of the sūtra becomes, viṇai or tolil etc., precedes tolil. How can tolil precede tolil? It may be noted here

doer, ceyappaţuporuļ or object, nilam or place, kālam or time, karuvi or instrument, innatarku or the recipient of the result of the action and itu payan or the purpose of the action. Tolkāppiyanār does not seem to intend this sūtra as a definition of the verb.

The author of Ilakkaṇaviļakkam seems to have seen this defect in Naṇṇūlār's definition of viṇai and also seems to have noted that the sūtra 'viṇai y-eṇa-p-paṭuva (Tol. Col. 198) is also defective owing to his mistaken notion that it deals with the definition of viṇai. So he makes the addition 'peruṭpuṭai peyarcci pulappaṭup paṭuvē' to Tol. Col. 198. Hence according to him viṇai is that which denotes action and time and which does not take case-suffixes after it.

- 3.222. CLASSIFICATION: Verbs are primarily divided into two classes, viz., kurippu-vinai and vinai¹ (latterly known as terinilai-vinai).
- 3.2221. KURIPPUVINAI or appellative verbs are in the opinion of Tolkāppiyaṇār, those that are formed from the words denoting qualities as ārralēn (I possess strength) (Pattu. 346. 29), from compounds made up of a word denoting quality and a word denoting any limb as neṭuñceviyaṇ, (he has sharp ears) from words made up of a noun and a particle denoting comparison as poṇṇaṇṇaṇam (we are like gold in colour). (P. N. 84.2.), and the verbs iṇrū, ila, uṭaiya, aṇrū, uṭaitti, alla and uṭa,²

that the same word vinai is used in other places to denote verb and the word tolil also is used in the same sense.

Cf. Peyarun tolilum pirintorun k-icaippa.... (Tol. E. 133.)

- Kurippinum vinaiyinu neri-p-paţa-t- tönri-k Kālamoţu varūum vinai-c-col l-ellām Uyartinai-k k-urimaiyu m-a: rinai-k k-urimaiyum A-y-iru tinaikkum-ö r-anna v-urimaiyum A-m-mū v-urupina tönra l-ārē. (Tol. Col. 201.)
- Ingila v-uţaiya v-ennun kilaviyum
 Anguţait- talla v-ennun kilaviyum
 Panpu-kol kilaviyu m-ula-v-en kilaviyum
 Panpi n-ākiya cinai-mutag kilaviyum

the forms like kunjukaţţû, etc., and illai and vērûl which are common to all genders and numbers.

The author of Viracoliyam seems to mention in V.K. 11 that vinaikkurippù corresponds to the bhāvēprayoga in Sanskrit. Since the bhāvēprayoga in Sanskrit is used only in the third person singular to denote the action alone as sthīyatē for sthiti and the vinaikkurippù is used in both the numbers of all the persons and denotes not only the action but also the person and the number, his view does not seem to be correct.

Nannūlār adds to the list of appellative verbs given by Tolkāppiyanār the words formed from those denoting the time and place as ōṇattān, kāṇakanāṭaṇai (P.N. 5.3.) and the word unṭu, and says that unṭu is common to all genders and numbers². He also defines kurippuviṇai as that which can take only a subject before it and is not governed by any word in the second, the third, the fourth, the fifth or the seventh, case³.

The author of llakkaṇavilakkam and other grammarians except the author of Pirayōkavivēkam have followed the author of Naṇṇūl.

It seems to me that the form until (from the root ul) which may have been used only as the neuter singular like intil and antil at the time of Tolkappiyanar was generalised throughout so that it began to be used with all persons, genders and numbers from about the time of Nannular.

Oppotu varūun kiļaviyotu tokaii Appār pattun kurippotu koļļum. (ibid. 220.)

Munnilai viyanköl vinai-y-eñcu kilavi
Inmai ceppal vēren kilavi
Ceymmana ceyyuñ ceyta v-ennum
A-m-murai ninra v-ā-y-en kilaviyum
Tiripu-vēru paṭūuñ ceytiya v-āki
Irutinai-c corkumö r-anna v-urimaiya. (ibid. 222.)

Vērillai y-untaim pāl-mū v-itattana. (Na. 339.)
 Evan-en vināviņas-k kurippu iļi y-iru-pāl. (ibid. 350.)

Poruļ-muta l-āriņum tōrri-mun n-āraņuļ
 Viņai-mutal māttirai viļakkal viņai-k-kurippē. (ibid. 321.)

4. cf. Itai-p-patir kuruku m-itanu mar-unte. (Tol. E. 37.)

The author of Pirayokavivekam seems to think that the kurippuvinai which are formed from nouns correspond to the nāmadhātus (denominatives) found in Sanskrit. For instance, the Tamil appellative verbs, pāmpaņaiyān, aruppān are similar in nature to the nămadhātus puttrīyati, kṛṣṇāyatē, etc. But it seems to me that they (kurippuvinai) are not so, though both are derived from nouns; for, puttrīyati means either he wishes to have a son or he wants to act like a son; similarly, tapasyati means he wishes to perform penance; mālāti means it acts like a garland and so on; but makanen in Tamil (Ka. T. Vol. 2, 722, 7), means 'I am the son'. Hence there is a great difference in sense, between nāmadhātus in Sanskrit and appellative verbs in Tamil. Besides there is a difference in the form too. Generally, one of the particles kyac, kyan etc. is added between the noun and the verbal terminations in Sanskrit denominatives, and such verbs are used in all tenses and moods. But in Tamil appellatives, the verbal termination is invariably added directly to the nouns and they have no tense-element in their forms.

Hence I may say that the appellative verbs form a special feature of the Tamil Language. Originally, they may have been participial nouns and later on used as logical predicates. Afterwards, they may have been included under verbs.

3.2222. VINAI OR TERINILAIVINAI: 3.22221. CLASSIFICATION INTO SIMPLE AND CAUSAL VERBS: Terinilai-vinai may be divided under two heads-tay-vinai or simple verb and pira-vinai or causal verb. It should be clearly understood here that tan-vinai and pira-vinai do not at all correspond to ālamanēpada and parasmaipada respectively as stated by Dr. Caldwell,1 For, tan-vinai denotes an action done by the person or thing denoted by its subject, while pira-vinai denotes an action done by one other than the agent denoted by the subject. But in Sanskrit if a root can take both atmanepada and parasmaipada terminations, the former are used when the result of the action goes to the doer and the latter when it goes to some one other than the doer.

^{1.} C. D. G. 449.

146 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL.

Tan-vinai is transitive (ceya-p-paţu-poruļ-kungāvinai) or intransitive (ceya-p-paṭu-poruļ-kungiya-vinai) according as it takes an object after it or not. In the sentence 'vagumai nōkkingū' ' (noted the poverty) (P.N. 141.15.) nōkkingū is transitive since vagumai (the accusative sign 'ai' is elided here) is its object, and in the sentence 'cellāmōtil cilvaṭai vigali' (oh vigali with a few bracelets, shall we go?) (P.N. 64.2.), cellāmō is intransitive. Hence Dr. Caldwell's statement that the tan-vinai.....are all necessarily as well as formally, intransitives¹ is not accurate.

The terms tan-vinai and pira-vinai are suggested by Tolkāppiyanār by the words tanpālānum and piranpālānum respectively in the sūtra

> Itu-ceyal vēṇṭu m-eṇṇuṅ kiļavi Iru-vayi ṇilai-y-um poruṭṭ-ā kummē Taṇ-pā l-āṇum piraṇ-pā l-āṇum. (Tol. Col. 243.)

Peruntëvanar, the commentator on Viracoliyam respectively calls them këvala-tatu and karita-tatu², while the author of Nannul uses the term eval-vinai for pira-vinai³, perhaps not liking the Sanskritic denomination karita-tatu.

The statement of Dr. Caldwell that 'these verbs (causals) have been classed with transitives both by the native grammarians and by Europeans, and Beschi alone places them in a class by themselves and calls them eval-vinai's is therefore incorrect.

3.222211. HOW ARE CAUSAL VERBS FORMED? Tolkāppiyanār has not stated how causal verbs are formed. But in the literature of the Sangam period, the following forms of causals are found:—

C. D. G. 450.

Aţinān kēvala-t-tātu; āţţinān kārita-t-tātu. (V. Tāt, 6, Comm.)

Cey-y-en vinai-vali vi-p-pi tani-varin Ceyvi-y-en n-ēva l-iņai-y-i n-īrēval. (Na. 138.)

^{4.} C. D. G. 455.

	Examples:	Quotations:
1.	uyarkkuvai	nattavar-kuţi-y-uyarkkuvai (Pattu. 217. 131) (You will raise the fallen families).
2.	peyarkkuvai	cerravar aracu peyarkkuvai (Pattu. 217. 132) (You will displace the sove- reignty of the enemies).
3.	põkki	kaivēl kaļirrotu pēkki (K. 774) (Having sent the hand-trident with elephants).
4.	tolaicci	kaţikāvinilai tolaicci (Pattu. 218.153) (Having spoiled the guarded state of forests).
5.	kalippi	marrai yāmam pakal ura-k-kalippi (Pattu, 236,653) (Having spent the remaining part of the day).
6.	tirutti	kõl tirutti (P.N. 17.5) (Having reformed the sceptre [rule]).
7.	cērtti	parruvali-c-cërtti (Cilap. 337.108) (Hav- ing attuned it to a song called parru).
8.	uruţţi	āli-tirappaţa-v-uruţţi (M. M. 61.76) (Having rolled the wheel so that it may become firm).
9,	öţţi	alittöţţi (Ep. I. Vol. XVII, Part VII. V. G. 95) (Having driven after routing them).
10.	vā <u>l</u> tti	atan tāļ vāltti (Pattu, 220.222) Having praised its feet).

From these it is seen that causals are formed from tan-vinai (1) by the doubling of the consonant of the formative as in examples 1 to 5 noted above, (2) by the doubling of the initial consonant of the signs of tense as in examples 6 and 7, (3) by the doubling of the final consonant of the root as in examples 8 and 9 or (4) by adding the particle 'ttu' to the root as in example 10.

In addition to such forms, the following forms are found in a few instances in Kural and in large numbers in the literature

148 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

written after the 5th century A.D. and in inscriptions of the same period.

ulappikkuñ cütü (K. 938). ulappikkum nayappittär nalkämai (K. 1190). nayappittär āttuvittālār oruvar ātātārē (T. 1229, stanza, 3). ättuvittäl atakkuvittälär oruvar atankätärë Do. atakkuvittäl öttuvittälär oruvar ötätärë öttuvittäl Do. urukuvittāl urukuvittälär ornvar urukätärë Do. pāttuvittālār oruvar pātātārē Do. pāttuvittāl panivittāl panivittālār oruvar paņiyātārē (T. 1229.3). kättuvittälär oruvar känätärë kättuvittäl Do. tāmra śāsanañ-jeyvittān (I.A. Vol. 22, p. 71 cerrittan M.M.P.). murruvikka vēļvi murruvikka (Ep. I. Vol. XVII. Part VII. V.G. 36). aruppippāņai kattaruppippāņai (T. 17.4).

Here two points may be noted:—(1) In words like paņivittāl, ceyvittān, aruppippānai, vi or pi is added direct to the root
and (2) in words like ōṭṭuvittāl, āṭṭuvittāl, etc., vi is added to the
causal forms ōṭṭu, āṭṭu, etc., of the roots ōṭu, āṭu, etc. Hence
ōṭṭuvittāl āṭṭuvittāl, etc., may be considered as double causals.
Perhaps, seeing such examples, the author of Viracōliyam said in
V. Tāt. 6 that the forms like āṭṭu, āṛṛu, are kāritam or causals
and if vi or pi is added once after them, they become kāritakkāritam or double causals and if vi or pi is added twice after
them as āṭṭuvippān, they become kāritakkāritakkāritam or triple
causals. But he has failed to note that vi or pi may be added
direct to roots to make them causals even though examples like
ulappikkum and ceyvittān were found before him.

Possibly to remove this defect Nannular says that ēval or causals are made by adding vi or pi to the root and īrēval or double causals, by adding either of them twice or both onee1, and does not mention triple causals.

Cey-y-en vinai-vali vi-p-pi tani-varin Ceyvi-y-en n-ëva l-inai-y-i n-ir-ëval. (Na. 138.)

The author of Ilakkaṇavilakkam, though he agrees with Naṇṇūlār that ēval or causals are formed by adding vi or pi to the root 1, feels that the mention of īrēval is absolutely unnecessary2.

The author of Pirayökavivékam prefers the Sanskritic term kāritam to denote ēval like the author of Vīracōliyam and mentions, in P.V. 35, that causals are formed by adding vi or pi, and, in the commentary on the same sūtra, says that they are also formed by the doubling of the consonant of the formative. In the same place he imports the Sanskritic grammatical term nijanta and composes a small sūtra 'vippi nicantan kāritam ākum'. He calls the forms āṭṭū, ūṭṭū, etc. 'sahaja-nijanta'. When the ordinary form like eṭutta is used for the casual form eṭuppitta, as in 'aracan eṭutta-v-ālayam', he says it is a case of 'antarbhāvitanic'.

From this it is evident that the ordinary forms of verbs are also used in causal sense. The word 'tapu' mentioned by Ilam-puranar under Tol. E. 76 which means 'die or make another die' is a fitting example of this.

The introduction of the terms nijanta and antarbhāvitaņic by the author of Pirayōkavivēkam in Tamil grammar does not seem to be appropriate, since the term nic denotes the causal pratyaya i in Sanskrit, while the causal elements in Tamil are of varied nature.

In this connection, it may be mentioned that, in the indeclinable participial forms like koļīi, nigīi, where the roots are koļ and nil, the element īi is considered by the present day Tamil Pandits to be the elongated ī and to convey the causal sense. In order to determine whether it is exactly so, I give below a brief analysis of all the indeclinable participial forms found in Puranānūrū and Pattuppāṭṭū.

Munna r-ōtiya mutanilai y-igutiyin
 Vi-p-pi y-enpavag goppatu tani-varin
 Eval vinai-mutag gerinilai vinaiyin
 Mēvaru pakuti yām-ena molipa. (I. V. 44.)

Irukāl-ēvutal kūriyatu kūral-ām-ākalip....(I. V. 44, Comm.)

150 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

Ro	ot. In	Indeclinable participial form in which it appears.		No. of times in Pura- nāṇūrú.	No. of times in Pattu-p- pāţţú.
(a)	ari arīi (causal)				1
(**)	ari		imple)	1	
	kali	kalīi	do.		1
	kuli	kulli	do.	2	7
	tali	talīi	do.	9	10
	*****		causal)	•••	2
			passive sense)		1
	paţi	2.5	causal)	1	
. '	muți		(simple	3	2
		oun)	Simple		<u></u>
	muri	murīi	do.	1	
(b)	iru	irīi (si			1
(0)	****		ausal)	0/00 2	5
	uţu	4.343	imple) @9332	1 3/4	3
	***	The second second	ausal)		3 2
	uru	Control of the Contro	imple)	三1: 開新	2
	*********		causal)	490	1
	uru	urīi	do.	1	
	oru	orīi (si		4	1
	ke <u>l</u> u	kelīi	do.	1	4
	5		ausal)		1
	ceruku		simple)	1	1
	taru		do.	•••	5
	maru(v	u) marīi	do.		1
	veru(vu		do.		5
	poru(vu		do.		1
(c)	acai	acaii	do.	2	10
	aļai	aļaii	do.		4
	(passive sense)			1	
	urai	uraii ((simple)		1
	kaţai	kaţaii	do.		
	kavai	kavaii	do.	•••	2 2
	(causal)		***	1	
	kuvai	kuvaii	do.		3

1	Root. Indeclinable participial form in which it appears.		No. of times	No. of times
			in Pura- nāṇūrū.	in Pattu-p- păţţů. 1
kai		kaii (simple)		
	tațai	tațaii do.	•••	1
	tulai	tulaii (causal)		1
	tai	taii (simple)	1	1
	nacai	nacaii do.	1	3
	nirai	niraii (causal)		1
	nilai	nilaii (simple)		1
	ninai	ninaii do.		1
	muyai	munaii do.	2	2
	vaļai	vaļaii (simple)	1	2
		(causal)	1	6
		(passive sense)	1	
	virai	viraii (simple)	2	4
		(causal)	2/30	1
(d)	kol	kolii do.	8	7
	nil	nirīi do.	2	3
		STATE OF THE PARTY	- The Control of the	

This list shows that alapetai is found in the indeclinable participles of roots ending in the vowels i, u and ai and in the consonants l and l. It seems to me that it may occur even in roots ending in consonants other than l and l since the form unti (meaning unti) is found in Aińkurunūrū. But of the roots ending in vowels only those that end in i, u or ai take it.

Besides, it is seen from the list that their usage as tanvinai or simple verbs to their usage as pira-vinai or causal verbs is roughly in the ratio of 2:1. Since the active form itself is capable of giving passive sense in Tamil, we need not discuss the cases where the passive sense is conveyed in some of the examples noted above.

In the examples under (c) and (a), we should carefully consider whether the final i is the element showing the elongation of the previous ai or i, or is a separate element by itself. My opinion is that it is the latter; and it is the element that is added to roots to form indeclinable participles as it is in the forms uranki, pāţi, etc. Thus, in the forms of the roots ending

52 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL.

in ai as acaii, ai is the final element of the root, and i, the sign of the indeclinable participle. If that be so, one may ask, whether it is not necessary to have the intervocalic y between ai and i. The sūtra:

Ellä molikku m-uyir-varu valiyë Utam-patu mey-y-i n-uruvu-kolal varaiyar.

(Tol. E. 141.)

clearly says that the insertion of the intervocalic element is only optional. Then what is the element in such cases that makes them causal? It is the context that makes the ordinary forms of verbs convey a causal sense.

The forms kolii, nirii of the roots ending in consonants mentioned under head (d) may have been formed thus :kol (root) + i (auxiliary verb, meaning to give) + i (sign of the indeclinable participle) and $nil + \overline{i} + i$. Here the root \overline{i} is added as an auxiliary to give causal sense. Thus kontil means 'having taken' and kolif means 'having given to take' i.e. having allowed another to take. The cases where the root I is used as an auxiliary are largely found in works of Sangam period, especially in Kalittokai. (e. g. vantīnku collukuttīvāyē (Ka. T. Vol. 2, 420.19.): pākaņ vantīyān kol. (Ka. T. Vol. 2, 429.10.) In these two examples, collukuttīvāyē and vantīyān only mean colluvāyē and vantān respectively. Though i generally gives causal sense, yet here it does not denote it like the nic in the root forms corayati, etc. of the 10th conjugation in Sanskrit. That such usage is common is seen from the statement in P. V. 35 Comm. that the word tērrātavar in the sentence 'natpātarērrātavar' means only tērātavar and hence tērrātavar is a kārita denoting 'svārtha.'

In this context it may be seen that other roots also like taru varu are largely used as auxiliaries without any special sense. (e.g.).....tiritaru.....(Pattu. 1.1) citaitara (Pari. 76.48.): tuyalvarūum (Pattu. 7.86). Besides both i and taru are used as auxiliaries in the same word. (e. g.) inku vantīttantāy (Ka. T. Vol. 2, 583.4).

Then as regards $\bar{\imath}$ in the forms $ar\bar{\imath}i$, $ir\bar{\imath}i$, etc. derived from the roots ending in i and u mentioned under (a) and (b), I may say that the auxiliary $\bar{\imath}$ was added to them, when their final vowel disappeared.\(^1\) In the later periods the forms $kall\bar{\imath}i$, $ull\bar{\imath}i$, etc., have given place to kallitu, ulltu, etc. (e.g.) kallita lltu lltu

Again the forms with vi or pi are not found, as far as I see, in the Sangam works earlier than Kural. What could have been the reason for the introduction of vi or pi? Pi and vi in such examples as kalippi (Pattu. 236,653.) and koluvi (Pattu. 353,324) where p and v are intervocalics may have been mistaken to be similar to pi and vi in the Sanskrit forms dapitah, mapitah, sphāvitah even though p or v is considered in Sanskrit not as a causal suffix, but the element added before the causal suffix i, and then such forms as kuraivittn (T. 2.81), etc. may have been used.

In colloquial Tamil, words like pāṭa-c-ceytēn and kaṭṭa-ppaṇṇiṇēn are used instead of pāṭuvittēn and kaṭṭuvittēn.

The formation of double and triple causals is a peculiar development in Tamil. It is not seen in Sanskrit.

3.22222. MOODS, VOICES AND TENSES: Terinilatviņai has four moods, indicative, ēval or imperative, viyankōļ or
optative and eccam or infinitive, and two voices—active affirmative and active negative—in the ancient period, and four voices—
active affirmative, active negative, passive affirmative and
passive negative—in the medieval and modern periods. There
are three tenses in the indicative and infinitive moods, while
there is only one in the imperative and the optative moods.

^{1.} This point suggested itself to me in the following circumstances:—The addition of syllables to increase the quantity is allowed by Tolkāppiyanār in verse and also in the use of vocatives. He has nowhere said that it is used to give the sense of indeclinable participle. The insertion of intervocalic y, v etc. is, according to him, optional. The roots taru, varu and t are found in large numbers as auxiliaries in the literature of the Sangam.

154 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

INDICATIVE 3.222221. MOOD : 3.2222211 ACTIVE AFFIRMATIVE VOICE: The verbs in the indicative mood of the active affirmative voice denote three points: -action. time and person. The element denoting action is evidently the root like \$0, nil, etc.; the element denoting person is the verbal termination, an, an, etc., which will shortly be dealt with in detail; the element denoting time is not mentioned by Tolkanpiyanar; but the fact that he recognises such an element is seen from his statement that the past tense is sometimes used for the future and so on.1 The later grammarians like the authors of Viracoliyam, Nannul, etc. make mention of them. What they are will be indicated after a detailed examination of personal terminations.

3.22222111. PERSONAL TERMINATIONS (ANCIENT PERIOD).

Singular:

Plural:

1st person

3. Avaitām

en, ēn, al, kū, tū, tū, rū²

am, ām, em, ēm, kum, tum, tum, rum³.

period, and i is found as the sign of the indeclinable participles in uranki, pāţi etc.

- Ka-ţa-ta-ţa v-ennum
 A-n-nān k-ūrnta kunriya lukaramoţu
 En-v-ē n-al-l-ena varūu m-ēļun
 Tan-viņai y-uraikkun tanmai-c collē. (ibid. 203.)
- Am-m-ā m-em-m-ē m-ennun kiļaviyum Um-m-oṭu varūun ka-ṭa-ta-ṭa v-ennum A-n-nāṭ kiļaviyo ṭ-ā-y-en kiļaviyum

Panmai y-uraikkun tanmai-c collē. (ibid. 202.)

Singular:

Plural:

2nd person

i, ai, ay, oyl

ir, 1r.2

3rd person

(a) masculine an, an, on3

ar, ar, or, pa and mar.

(b) feminine al, āl, ōl

epicene plural.4 & 5

(c) neuter fu, tu, Tu6

a, a, va. neuter plural.7

(MEDIEVAL & MODERN PERIODS.)

1st person

en, en, al, an

am, am, em, em, enkal.

ku, tu, tu, ru8 ōm, kum, tum, tum, rum.9

Avarrul

Munnilai-k kilavi

I-ai äy-ena varüu münrum

Oppa-t tönru m-oruvarkku m-onrarkum, (ibid, 223.)

Ay-en kilaviyu m-avarrotu kollum. (ibid. 212.)

2. Ir-ir min-y-ena varuu münrum

Pallor marunkinum palavarru marunkinun

Collor-anaiya v-enmanar pulavar. (ibid. 224.)

3. An-an al-a l-ennu nankum

Oruvar marunkir patarkkai-c colle, (ibid, 205.)

4. Ar-ar pa-ena varuu münrum

Pallor marunkir patarkkai-c colle. (ibid. 206.)

Mārai-k kiļavi-y-um pallor patarkkai

Kāla-k kilaviyotu mutiyu m-enpa, (ibid, 207.)

 Pāl-ari marapi n-am-mū v-īrrum A-v-ō v-ākuñ ceyyu l-ullē, (ibid. 211.)

Onran patarkkai ta-ra-ta v-urnta

Kunriya lukara-t t-iruti y-ākum. (ibid. 217.)

A-ā va-eṇa varūu m-iruti

Appan münre palavarru-p patarkkai. (ibid. 216.)

Tāv-āy-un-tīr-īruñ cārriya-tirkaļ-o ţ-īrkāļ-um-āñ 8. āvāta munnilai v-in-n-irappān-tanmai tan-n-irappir Rēyāta-tēņ-ēṇ-un tēm-ēm-un-tōm-ōm-umu m-ākum-eṇpa Vēyār-potiyat t-akattiyāgār-cogga mey-t-tamilkkē.

(V. K. 6.)

Kirāay-ningāy-kirīr ningīr-kirīrkal-ningīrkal-um-āy Irā-ningana-mun pilai-y-in-nikaļcci y-itan-kattanmai Kirê en-ninrên-kirê (m) ninrôn-kirôm-u

ningöm-um-engan

156 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

	Singular:	Plural:
2nd person	i, ai, āy, ōy	ir, īr, īrkaļ,
3rd person		
(a) masculine	an, ān, ōn	(ar, ār, ōr, epicene
(b) feminine	aļ, āļ. ōļ	(ārkaļ, pa, mār. plural.
(c) neuter	tù, rù	(a & ā. neuter plural,
***********		(ā in the negative mood.)

En and En: Of these two terminations, on is more frequently used in the ancient period than en, and whenever it is used, it is preceded by a cariyai an. (e.g.) kantanen (I found) (P. N. 23.17.): vantanen (I came) (P. N. 158.20.): in the later

Terā-ninra-kaţ-pava ļan-tikaļ-vāy-nar rīrntiļaiyē.

(ibid. 7.)

Vāy-pāy-vīr-pīr-vīrkal pīrkal-ivai-mannu munnilaiyir Cavpavvitum-etir kalam-itanuli-t tanmaicollin Vēy-pāvīya-toli vēn-pēn-vēm pēmotu vom-pom-um-an Cey-paviya-celum poti-p-piran-ran rirunturaikke. (ibid.8.) Ku-tu-tu-ru ennuh kurriya lukaramotu Al-an en-en āku m-irra Iru-tinai mu-k-kūr r-orumait-t tanmai. (Na. 331.) Am-am enpana munnilai y-arai--yum Em-ēm ōm-ivai patarkkai y-ārai-y-um Um-ūr ka-ta-ta-ra iru-pā l-ārai-y-um Tannotu patukkun tanmai-p panmai. (ibid. 332.) Ai-āy ikara v-īrra mūnrum Evalin varūu m-ellā v-īrravum Muppā l-orumai muppilai molivē. (ibid. 335.) Ir-ir irra irantu m-iru-tinai-p Panmai munnilai min-avar r-ēval. (ibid. 337.) Ku-tu-tu-rū v-ennun kunriya lukaramo Tal-l-an n-en-ë n-aku m-irra Iru-tinai mu-k-kūr r-orumai-t tanmai-yum Am-m-ā m-trra muppilai y-ārai-y-um Em-m-ë m-om-ivai patarkkai y-arai-y-um Um-m-ūr ka-ta-ta-ra v-iru-pā l-ārai-y-um Tannotu patukkun tanmai-p panmai-y-um. (I. V. 237.) Ai-y-ā y-īkara vīrra mūņru

period en is more frequently used. (e.g.) ukanten nan (I praised) (P. T. 169.4): ninnatainten nan (I went to you) (P. T. 169.5). These two are used in all tenses. En is used even without the cariyai. (e.g.) kappen (I will protect) (Kampar. A. 232.28).

Mēvalin varūu m-ellā v-īrrō T-al-lā l-ēl-kā n-ennu m-īrravum Muppā l-orumai munnilai viņaiyum Ir-i r-irra v-iranțu m-irutinai-p Panmai munnilai-y-u minnu m-irra Annavar r-ēvalu m-ām-ena moļipa. (ibid. 238.) Tān-ān-un-tāl-āl-un tār-ārun-tārkal-o t-ārkal-enru Menām-uraitta pirattivam-āhun tātu-v-atu-v-un Tēn-ār-kuļali tana-v-um-ana-v-un tikal-patarkkai Ānā-v-irappir rolirpatam-ārirku m-āynta-riyē. (V. K. 3.) Ningān kirān-otu ningāl-kirāl-ivai ningār-kirār Ningarkal-ötu-kin garkalu-ningatun kingatu-v-un Tenyata-cir-nin rana-kinyana-v-un tikal-patarkkai-p Pinganikalkai tolig-patam-arighum perttariye. (ibid. 4.) Van-pan-um-val-pal-um var-par-um-var kal-um pārkal-uñ-cīr Tān-pāviya-v-atu v-um-patu-v-un-tattai y-attai-v-enra Tēn-pāvun-colli vaņa-v-um-pana-v-un tikal-patarkkai Vān-pan-maliyu m-etirvir-rolirpata m-ārirkumē. (ibid. 5.) An-ā n-iru-moļi ānpār paṭarkkai. (Na. 325.) Al-ā l-iru-moli penpār patarkkai. (ibid. 326.) Ar-ar pa-v-v-a r-akara mā r-irra Pallör patarkkai mär vinai-y-otu muțimē. (ibid. 327.) Tu-ru-tu-k kurriya lukara v-irra Ouran patarkkai tu-k kurippi n-ākum. (ibid. 328.) Aā v-irra palavin patarkkai A-v-ē etirmaraik kanna t-ākum. (ibid. 329.) An-n-ā n-iru-moļi y-ānpār patarkkaiyum Al-l-ā l-iru-moli penpār patarkkaiyum Ar-ār pa-v-v-ū r-akāra mārīrra Pallör palarkkaiyum pakaru-man n-avarrun Mārai-k kilavi viņaiyotu mutiyiņum Mēlaik kilaviyotu vērupā tinrē. (I. V. 232.) Tu-ru-tu-k kurriya lukara v-īrra

Onran patarkkaiyum a-ā virra

158 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

AL: The commentator on Viracoliyam says that al is used to denote the determination of the speaker,1 Cenavaraiyar says in his commentary on the sutra

> Ka-ṭa-ta-ṛa v-eṇṇum A-n-nāṇ k-ūrnta-kuṛṛiya l-ukaramōṭù Eṇ-ṇ-ē ṇ-al-l-eṇa varūu m-ēlum

Tan-vinai y-uraikkum tanmai-c-collé. (Tol. Col. 203.) that al is preceded by p or v and is used only in verbs denoting the future tense. Naccinarkkiniyar adds in his commentary on the same sutra that it is sometimes used in the verbs denoting present tense also as in the word unna-nirpal (I cat). The author of Ilakkanavilakkam agrees with Cēnāvaraiyar.2 In the literature of the Sangam period, though al is generally used in verbs denoting future tense, yet there are instances where it is found in verbs denoting past tense also. (e.g.) kantanen varuval (I came to see) (P. N. 23.17) and uvakaiyotü varuval (I came eagerly) (P. N. 165.14). But in all the instances, the determination of the speaker is implied. Hence the opinion of the commentator of Vīracōliyam seems to me to be more satisfactory. This may perhaps be the reason why Tolkappiyanar has not mentioned the element that denotes tense signs and the particular terminations that are used after them.

AN: This is not mentioned by Tolkāppiyanār as a termination of the first person singular. But there are instances in Puranānūrū 'uraittanan yān' (I said) (P. N. 136.22) yānum... vantanan (even I came) (P. N. 154.7) where an is so used. Similar examples are found in later literature also. (e.g.) ceykuvan tavam ena (that I will do penance) (M. M. 50.182). These examples may have induced the author of Vīracōliyam to state

Palavin patarkkaiyum pakaruman n-avan-ut Tu-v-v-iru kilavi kurippir k-ërralum Ā-v-i r-etirmarai-k k-akalu m-uriya. (ibid. 234.)

Tunivu-p-porulin-kan tanmai-y-orumaiyil van, pan ennum irantu pirattiyum-ām. (V. K. 10, Comm.)

Unpal, varuval ena varum al-l-trru-t : tanmai-y-orumaimurru-c-collum....etirkälam-parri varum. (I. V. 237, Comm.)

that an along with p or v as pan or van is the first person singular termination.1

The author of Ilakkaṇaviļakkam says that an is used in verbs denoting future tense.² But the example uraitlaṇan cited above denotes only past tense. Hence the opinion of the author of Viracoliyam seems to me to be more satisfactory.

WHAT MAY BE THE ORIGIN OF THIS AN ? This may be identical with an of the third person singular masculine. Since there is sometimes a tendency to use third person to denote the speaker himself possibly out of modesty, this may have been originally used to denote first person in sense though, in form, it may have been taken as third person singular masculine, and afterwards the form itself may have been mistaken for that of the first person. Or the third personal termination an itself may have been used originally both for the third and the first person at the beginning of the formation of the language and these instances may be the survivals of such pre-historic usage; for, if we observe the growth of language in children, it is seen that it takes a long time for them to grasp the idea of 'l' and so they generally refer to themselves only in the third person. Or al mentioned above may have been metamorphosed into an as the case-suffies an and in to all and il respectively. cf. 3.213233 and 3.213234 supra.

Kù, Tù, Tù, Rù: Of these four tù, tù and rù belong not only to the first person singular, but also to the third person neuter. Wherever these are used, they are not preceded by the tense signs unlike the terminations en, en, etc. Hence it seems to me that these forms may have come into existence by cutting off en, an, ar, etc. from unten, tanten, centen, untan, tantan, centan, untan, tantan, centan, untan, tantan, centan, untan, and ar are expressed by their subjects yan or nan, avan and avar respectively and may have been at some time

Tanmai-t-tunivā m-orumai-van-pana.... (V. K. 10.)

Kūruvan ena varum an-n-irrut tanmai-y-orumai-murru-ccollum etirkālam-parrivarum. (I. V. 237, Comm.)

used in all the persons and numbers, but later on restricted to the first person singular and the third person neuter singular. Similarly the form unki may have been evolved out of unken and may have been restricted to the first person singular.

Ilampūraņar thinks that the forms unkii, unții, vantii and cērii (Tol. Col. 203, Ilam.) are used only in the future tense. Nannūlār says in Na. 145 that rii and tii denote the past and the future, ții, the past and kii, the future tense. Cēnāvaraiyar agrees with Ilampūraṇar. Naccinārkkiniyar states with caution that all the four mostly denote the future tense. The author of Ilakkaṇaviļakkam agrees with Ilampūraṇar. (I. V. 50.)

Am, $\bar{A}m$, $\bar{E}m$, $\bar{E}m$, $\bar{E}nkal$, $\bar{O}m$: Of these, the first four are generally used in all periods, while the fifth, which is evidently a double plural termination, in the medieval period and the last in the medieval and modern periods. $\bar{O}m$ may have sprung from $\bar{a}m$ by changing \bar{a} to \bar{o} through analogy with the formations vanton, vantol, vantor and vantoy.

The following may serve as examples for most of the terminations mentioned above:—unkuvam (we will eat) (P. N. 136,26.); ēttukam (we will praise) (P. N. 161,32,); kūruvām (we will narrate) (Kampar, B. 26,1.); uṭai-y-ēm (we have) (P. N.) 112,2); uṇṭēṅkaļ (we ate) (C. C. 1795.); tantōm (we gave) vēṇṭōm (we do not pray for) (P. T. 195, 5).

These terminations are like ey, ey, etc. preceded by the tense signs.

Hampüraņar, Cēṇāvaraiyar and Nacciṇārkkiṇiyar mention that $\bar{a}m$ and $\bar{o}m$ are used when the subject denotes the speaker and the person spoken to, or the speaker, the person spoken to and a third person, and $\bar{c}m$ and $\bar{c}m$ when it denotes the speaker and a third party.¹ Naṇṇūlār says the same, but adds $\bar{o}m$ also to the latter list.² The author of Hakkaṇaviļakkam agrees with

Am ām en paņa munningārai uļap paţukkum; tamar-āya-vaļi paţarkkai-y-ārai-y-um uļappaţukkum. Em ēm enpaņa paţarkkaiyārai uļappaţukkum. (Tol. Col. 202, Cenā.)

Am-ām enpaņa munnilai y-āraiyum
 Em-ēm ōm-ivai paţarkkai y-āraiyum. (Na. 332.)

Nannūlār. The author of Vīracoliyam mentions only em and om. The following may serve as examples for the same:—

Payil pūntanţalai-p-paţarkuvam (Cilap. 258,67.); here paţarkuvam means 'let her, you and me go'.

Ēval ceytuņaivarēm yānkaļ (Kampar, K. 175.14,); here ēvalceytuņaivarēm means 'let me and others serve you'.

Varikku-k-kūru ceyvārkaļukkum connom (S. I. I. iii, i, 44-5); here connom does not include the person spoken to.

In colloquial speech of the modern days, only the terminations $\bar{o}m$ and $\bar{e}nga$ or $\bar{e}ng\bar{o}$, the modified forms of $\bar{e}nkal$ are used. $\bar{E}nga$ or $\bar{e}ng\bar{o}$ are used only by uneducated people. M. J. Vinson mentions only the latter form. (J. A. Dixie Serie Tome 17, p. 189.)

Kum, Tum, Tum, Rum: Whatever is said of kû, tû, tû, and tû applies to these four. Evidently, these are formed from kû, tû, tû and tû by the addition of the pluralising particle m; (e.g.) kûranan kûtutum (we shall state the reasons) (T. 3.3).

I, ai, āy, ōy: Of these terminations, i and ai are more frequently used in the ancient period, while āy in the later periods; the form ōy is generally used in literature. In colloquial speech only the termination āy is now frequently used. (e.g.) varaiti (you classify) (P. N. 8,8): varuti (you come) (P.N. 8.8.): paṭiyiṇai (you made them rest) (P.N. 15.10.): eri ūṭṭiṇai (you set fire (P.N. 16,17.): ollāy (you will not desire) (P. N. 31.6.): ūtāy (you will blow) (P.T. 160.6 to 10.): koṭuttōy (you gave) (P.N. 2,16). [The author of Vīracoliyam mentions only āy.]

Ir, īr, īrkaļ: Ir and īr are generally used in the literature of all periods. In the medieval and modern periods, the double plural terminations began to be used. (e. g.) celkuvīr (you will go) (Cilap. 295,91.): paṭarīr (you traverse) (Cilap. 295,87.): vantīrkaļ (you have come) (colloq.): ir is practically extinct.

Am-m-ā mīrra munnilai y-āraiyum
 Em-m-ē m-om-ivai paţarkkai y-āraiyum....(I. V. 237.)

[The author of Viracoliyam mentions only ir and irkal.] In the colloquial speech at the present day, ir is used in the honorific singular alone and irkal, inga and $ing\bar{o}$ are used in honorific singular and plural. The forms inga and $ing\bar{o}$ are used only by uneducated people. They are evidently the modified forms of irkal. The substitution of n for r may be due to the principle of economy of effort, since it is easier to pronounce n before g than r; or it may be through analogy with n in vantenga or vantenga. The latter form is mentioned by M. J. Vinson. (J. A. Dixieme Series, Tome 17, p. 189.)

An, ān, ōn: An is generally preceded by the cāriyai an as attanan (he killed) (P.N. 78,12). But it is used by itself after the roots (ul, il, etc.) (e.g.) ulan (he is) (P.N. 86,3). Ōn is used only in literature. (e.g.) urantaiyōnē (he belongs to urantai) (P.N. 68,18.) [The author of Vīracōliyam mentions only ān. (V.K. 3,4, etc.)] but the later grammarians follow Tolkāppiyanār. In colloquial Tamil only ān is used.

Al, āl, ōl: Whatever has been said about an, ān and ōn holds good for al, āl, and ōl. (e. g.) alutanal (she bewailed) (P. N. 143.15). [The author of Viracoliyam mentions only āl] but the later grammarians follow Tolkāppiyanār.

Ar, ār, ōr, þa, mār, ārkaļ: The first five are used in all periods, while the last is found only in the medieval and modern periods. Ōr is used only in literature. Ārkaļ is evidently a double plural termination. As regards mār, I quite agree with M. J. Vinson that it is also a case of double plural termination. (J. A. Dixieme Serie Tome, 17, p. 189.) Verbal forms with ārkaļ are very frequently used in Tēvāram and Nālāyirappirapantam. (e.g.) pukaļvārkaļ (they will praise) (T. 32,9). Hence it seems to be that the author of Vīracōliyam has mentioned ārkaļ side by side with ār. But it is difficult to understand why he has not mentioned the terminations ar, ōr, þa and mār. The other grammarians have followed Tolkāppiyaṇār. In the colloquial speech of the present day, the termination ār is used in honorific singular and ārkaļ both in honorific singular and ārkaļ both in honorific singular and plural. Uneducated

people use ānga and āngō, the modified forms of ārkaļ. They may have had the same origin as īnga or īngō.

Tù, rù: Nannülär states that tù and rù denote the past and the future tense.¹ Cēnāvaraiyar's opinion is that tù is used after the sign of all the three tenses, and rù after that of the past.² Naccinārkkiniyar agrees with the latter.³ [Tù is not included here since Cēnāvaraiyar and Naccinārkkiniyar think that it is used only in the appellative verbs.]

A, ā, va: Whenever a is used, it is generally preceded by the cāriyai an. (e. g.) paraintana (they have been scraped) (P.N. 4.3); maruppu-p-pōnnana (they are like horns) (P.N. 4,4.); but there are examples where it is used without it. (e. g.) tōnnuva (they will appear) (P. N. 4.5). Ā is used in the negative sense. Tolkāppiyanār himself has used it so. (e.g.) uyirmey allana moļimuta l-ākā (Tol. E. 60); but he has not expressly stated in any of his sūtras that it has negative sense. Nannūlār, seems to be the first grammarian to mention it,4 and the author of Ilakkanaviļakkam follows him.5

[The author of Viracoliyam mentions ana which evidently shows that he takes the termination and the cariyai an together as termination. He does not mention ā or va.]

A NOTE ON KAĻ in ENKAĻ, ĪRKAĻ, ĀRKAĻ: According to Tolkāppiyaṇār, kaļ is optionally used as the pluralising

Ra-v-v-o ţu-kara v-ummai-nikal p-allavum Ta-v-v-o ţ-irappu m-etirvum... (Na. 145.)

Takara-v-ukaram müngu-kālattigkum urittú;
 Rakara-v-ukaram iganta-kālattigku urittú.
 (Tol. Col. 217, Cēnā.)

^{3.} Ibid. (Tol. Col. 217, Nac.)

Aā īrra palaviņ paṭarkkai Ā-v-ē etir-marai-k kaṇṇa tākum. (Na. 329.)

Turu-tu-k kurriya lukara v-īrra
 Onran paṭarkkaiyum a-ā v-īrra
 Ā-v-ī r-etir-marai-k k-ākalu m-uriya. (T. V. 234.)

narticle of astrinai nouns. Its use may have subsequently been extended to uyartinai nouns also. (e.g.) manilarkal (men). In such cases it is added mostly to plural forms, thus making them double plurals. Verbal forms like ponar may be used as nouns also in Tamil in the sense of persons who went, and declined as ponārai, ponāroţii, etc. To the latter type of forms like ponār. kal may have been added and thus forms like ponarkal may have come into being, in the sense of persons who went. (e.g.) colmālai colluvārkaļ...neţunkālam vāļvārē (those who compose songs will live for a long time) (P. T. 135, 10); here colluvārkal means those who will say. Such forms were, perhaps, through confusion, treated as verbs. From such instances, kal should have become generalised as a pluralising particle in verbs also. Thus ponarkal, ponarkal, etc. are cases of double plurals. Double plurals of this kind are found frequently used in Tevaram and Nalavirappirapantam, the literature written between the the 6th and 8th centuries A.D. But in the later literature they are not so frequent.

Here it would be very useful to bear in mind that ancient Canarese gal and modern Canarese galu which correspond to Tamil kal are not used in Canarese verbs and that likewise Telugu lu (= Tamil kal) is not used in Telugu verbs.1 It would not be difficult to infer from this that the use of kal as a pluralizing particle of verbs should have been developed as a special feature of Tamil during the course of its separate development, and that, prior to its separation from Telugu and Canarese, during what might be called the primitive Dravidian period, kal did not find any place in the formation of verbs. It would also be interesting to observe that Canarese gal or galu and Telugu lu which correspond to Tamil kal are occasionally used as the plural suffix in Cauarese and Telugu, of rational nouns and pronouns2 corresponding to uyartinai nouns and pronouns in Tamil, and that, in Cilappatikaram for the first time, the form yankal occurs with kal in uyartinai, though no verbal form with kal is found there.

^{1.} C. D. G. pp. 555 to 563.

^{2.} Ibid. 224.

Such verbal forms with kal are found for the first time in the works of the 6th, 7th and 8th centuries A. D. like Tevaram, and Nalayirappirapantam. This induces me to suggest that Canarese, Telugu and Tamil may have been separated from one another between the age of Cilappatikaram (5th cent. A.D. circa.) and the age of Tevaram and Nalayirappirapantam (6th to 8th cent. A.D.).

IMITATION OF PĀŅĪNĪ BY THE AUTHORS OF VĪRA-CŌLIYAM AND PIRAYŌKAVĪVĒKAM: The author of Vīracōliyam does not mention the verbal terminations separately but mentions them along with tense elements as tāṇ, tāṭ, niṇṛāṇ, kiṛāṇ, kiṛāṇ, kiṛēṇ, etc. He has done so, perhaps because he thought that they should correspond to ti, si, mi, etc. the terminations in Sanskrit, which generally denote both tense and person.

The author of Pirayokavivekam has gone too far in importing unnecessarily the terms atmanepada and parasmaipada and explaining them with reference to the Tamil terminations. He states that parappaipatam (parasmaipada) is used at the end of finite verbs in kartari or active voice, the tan or arpanepatam (ātmanēpada) is used in kartari or active voice, karmani or passive voice or bhave or impersonal form. According to him parappaipatam is the termination which ends in a short vowel or has a penultimate short vowel. (e.g.) ku, an, al, ar, etc.; ar panepatam is that which ends in a long vowel or has a penultimate long vowel. (e.g.) mar, ai, ay, etc. Both the above terminations are arbanepalam when they are used in the passive voice, roots which take both the above terminations are called upayapati (ubhayapadi). Thus the root camai (to cook) which has forms camaikkinganan, (he cooks) camaippān. (he will cook) camaikkingilan, (he does not cook) camaikkingan, (he cooks) camaippāņ, (he will cook) camaiyāņ (he will not cook) is upayapati; the root un with reference to the forms unkiran unmar, untanai untan is ēkapati in arpanēpatam and the same root with reference to the forms unku, untu, etc. is ēkapati in parappaipatam.

It is clear that this classification of terminations is quite against the nature of Tamil language and is done solely in imitation of Sanskrit Grammar. Even here it may be noted that in Sanskrit, if a root takes ātmanēpada terminations, it takes them in all persons in its conjugation in one tense or mood. (e.g.) karōmi, karōṣi and karōti in the singular of the 1st, 2nd and 3rd persons present, respectively; but in Tamil, unṭū, the first person singular past tense, is parappaipatam, unṭāy, the 2nd person singular in the same tense is ārpanēpatam and unṭū, the 3rd person neuter singular in the same tense is parappaipatam. Besides, he says that the verbal form 'camaikkinṛaṇaṇ' is used when one cooks for another and camaikkinṛāṇ is used when one cooks for himself. Nowhere else is it said so; nor do I see any example in literature in support of this distinction.

Besides, he mentions that the form 'cāttaṇāl varappaṭum' as an example for bhāvēprayōga. This is exactly the translation of the Sanskrit sentence 'cāttēna āgamyatē'. Such a sentence, though made up of Tamil words does not seem to me to be a Tamil sentence.¹ His importation of bhāvēprayōga too is most inappropriate.

Another most curious point mentioned by him is that 'a' following 'n' in the form unnappatum, 'ā' following 'n' in unnaningan, 'u' following 'l' in colluka, 'i' following 'r' in vengika, ta in pukutaka, tai in irintaikka, ku in araikuvan are conjugational signs.² Is this not in direct imitation of Sanskrit?

By the way he mentions that he has imported the Sanskritic terms tin and tan in Tamil to make up for the want of Tamil words ending in 'n'.3 By such importation he does more harm than good. The terms tin and tan may be quite intelligible in Sanskrit grammar, but, in Tamil, they are not so, since the Tamil grammarians have not resorted to the devise of using pratyāhāra as in Sanskrit.

^{1.} P. V. 36 & its comm.

^{2.} P. V. 41, comm.

^{3.} P. V. 36, comm.

3.22222112. TENSE AND TENSE-SIGNS:-Tolkāppiyanar says that there are three tenses past, present and future.1 He does not mention any suffix denoting tense. This fact is noticed by the commentators Cēṇāvaraiyar and Nacciṇārkkiṇivar and they make mention of the same under the last sutra of Collatikāram in Tolkāppiyam. But at the same time Tolkāppiyanar mentions that the past tense is used to denote either the present or the future when such actions take place immediately,2 and that the past and the present tenses are used to denote the future for the sake of clearness.3 If distinct tense formations were definitely current in Tolkappiyanar's time, it would be difficult to account for his omission to deal with the distinctive signs for such formations. He mentions, however, three tenses and adds that one may be used for another under certain circumstances as stated above. It is impossible to see how he could speak of one tense form being used for another if it were true that in his days tense formations were not at all differentiated on the morphological side. I am inclined to suggest a solution for this difficulty. It may not be unreasonable to suppose that perhaps, Tolkappiyanar was only thinking of different tense-values when he mentioned three tenses; that some of his contemporaries may have begun to associate particular verbal forms with particular tense values through the frequency of particular use; and that, with reference to such forms, Tolkappiyanar probably indicating the circumstances under which overlapping in tense values might be recognised.

- Kālan tāmē mūngeņa moļipa. (Tol. Col. 199.)
 Igappi nikaļvi n-etirvi n-engā
 A-m-mu-k kālamun kugippotun koļļum
 Mey-n-nilai y-uţaiya tōnga l-āgē (ibid. 200.)
- Vārā-k kālattu nikaļun kālattum
 Or-ānkū varūum viņai-c-cor kiļavi
 Iranta kālattu-k kurippotu kiļattal
 Virainta porula v-enmanār pulavar. (ibid. 241.)
- Vārā-k kālattu viņai-c-cor kiļavi Irappiņu nikaļviņun cirappa-t toņrum Ivarkai-v-un telivun kilakkun kālai. (ibid. 245.)

168 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL.

The author of Viracoliyam states that ta, na and ya are added to roots to form the past participle, kira, āninra and cut to form the present participle and kum, um, m, to form the future participle. Its commentator gives the following as examples under the same stanza for the past participles:—piranta, pona and āya.

The author of Nannul seems to have analysed the above into t and a, kiru and a, etc. where t, kiru, etc. were taken as tense signs and a, the participial sign. According to him, t, t, r and in denote the past tense, kiru, kinru and aninru denote the present tense and pa and va denote the future, rù and rum, and tù and tum denote the past and the future, tù and tum denote the past, kù and kum denote the future, i and mar denote the future, pa the past and the future, um the present and the future? Here it must be noted that the verbal terminations kù, tù, tù, ru, kum, tum, tum, rum are taken to denote not only the person and the number, but also the tense.

Since t becomes t and t respectively after t and t, and t and t, t and t may be regarded as the modification of t itself; and hence it seems to me that it would have been sufficient if Nannülär had mentioned only t and t as past tense signs.

Tātu-v-iy-pin pù ta-ya-ya-v-irappi nikatci-y-ir-kan Otun-kira-cu-v-o t-aninra-v-an-kum-m-um m-ötuma:.kan Pētamaliyu m-etirin-kan-ākum pigavum-vantāl Etan-il-catiran tam-pilaiyāma l-iyarri-k-koļļē. (V Tāt. 7.) Ta-ta-ra-v-or r-in-r-ë y-aim-pāl mū-v-itattū Iranta kālan tarun-toļi l-itai-nilai, (Na. 142.) Aninru kinru kir-ma v-itattin Aim-pāl nikaļ-poļu t-arai-viņai v-itai-nilai. (ibid. 143.) Pa-v-va mū-v-itat t-ai-m-pā l-etir-polutii Icai-vinai y-ițai-nilai y-ām-ivai cila-v-ila. (ibid. 144.) Ra-v-v-o tukara v-ummai-nikal p-alla-vum Ta-v-v-o t-irappu m-etirvum ta-v-v-otü Kalivum ka-v-v-ö t-etirvum-min n-ëval Viyankö l-i-m-mä r-etirvum päntam Celavotů varavum ceyyu-nikal p-etirvum Etir-marai mummai-yu m-ērku m-tikē, (ibid. 145.)

Besides, there are a few roots in Tamil, as Dr. Caldwell says, which formed their past tense in the ancient period without the addition of any tense sign, but by the reduplication of the final consonant. (e.g.) pukkanar (they entered) (Cilap. 342, 196). But even in the ancient period such forms began generally to be superseded by the more regular forms formed by adding tense to roots. (e.g.) pukuntu (Cilap. 574, 14).

As regards the future tense, it seems to me that it may have been in its origin later than the past, for it is possible for the primitive people to remember some of their past deeds and express them to others before they begin to think of the future. This is clearly seen in the case of children. The only future that would have been possible then was that conveyed by the command which is expressed by the imperative second person.

The present tense may, in all probability, have been the last in the formation, since it is not quite necessary on the part of a speaker to express to another what is actually happening since he himself is witnessing it. The present tense forms in Tamil with the signs kingu, āningu, etc. are almost absent in the works of Sangam period. I was able to find out one form cērkinga in Paripāţal (p. 163, 35). Such forms are very frequent only in the literature of the medieval period. (e.g.) enkingāļ in each of 10 stanzas in Tēvāram, pp. 25 and 26; enkingāļāl in Periyatirumoļi

Yakaram varu-vali y-ikaran kurukum Ukara-k kilavi tuvara-t töyrätü. (Tol. E. 411.)

of Nālāyirappirapantam, pp. 154 and 155; cellāninga āņļu (T. A. S. i, 14); pargāningārai (T. 1. 51).

The forms unkiran, unkingan, unnaningan, unnakitantan, unnāviruntān appear to me to have been two words which were, later on, mistaken for one; for the commentator on Viracoliyam says that the forms ningān, kitantān, iruntān, etc., are derived from the roots nil, kita, iru, etc. and are used as the personal terminations after roots in the present tense.1 Cenavaraiyar, a commentator on Tolkappiyam repeats the same thing. Hence unnā and ningān were, at one time, two words of which unnā was a participle (modified form of unna) and ningan was the finite verb. This may be seen from the following two examples:iravā ningān (Kampar. A. 239. 38.); tērgā ningān (Kampar. A. 249. 52.) where iravā and tērrā are affirmative indeclinable participles. Later on nil of ninran in unnaninran began to be taken as an auxiliary verb. Unnaninran should have originally meant the is eating', the past tense ningan being used to denote the immediateness of the action. The above explanation holds good for the forms unnaningan, unnakitantan and unnaviruntan. But what should have been the origin of unkiran and unkinran? The form unkiren which is very often used in colloquial speech is said to be the later form by Naccinārkkiniyar2 and it is not generally found in Tamil classics up to 12th century. Hence it may be considered to have been the modified form of unkingan. The form akingu as the finite verb is found in the following lines of Purananūrū:-

Pennuruvu oru-tiran ākiņru (the form of a woman is on one side). (P.N. 1.7.)

Pirai-nutal vannam-ā kingū (crescent forms a source of beauty to the forehead). (P.N. 1.9.)

Nil ennun tātuviņiņgū iganta-kāla-p-paţarkkaiyil ningāņ mutaliya pirattiyayankaļ nikal-kāla-p-poruļil varum. (V. K. 4, comm.)

Uņķirēņ-eņa-k kiru eņpatū nikaļkālam uņarttutal i-k-kālavaļakkū. (Tol. Col. 202, Nac.)

This may have been formed from \tilde{a} (root) + ku (cāriyai) + in (cāriyai) + $r\tilde{u}$ (the neuter sign termination). Could $\tilde{a}kinr\tilde{a}n$ have been formed by adding $\tilde{a}n$ to $\tilde{a}kinr\tilde{u}$ mistaking it to be the indeclinable participle? Or as Dr. Graul, Dr. Gundert and M. J. Vinson opine, $kinr\tilde{u}$ may have been formed from k a sign of the future in Tamil and $inr\tilde{u}$ meaning now.

The author of Nannul plainly says that kiru and kinru and aninru are the present tense signs, though k of kiru and kinru in forms like unkirān and unkinrān is the final element of the previous word, like unku, and iru is the initial element of the following word, and ā of āninru in the form like unnāninrān is the final element of the affirmative indeclinable participles like unnā, and ninru is the initial element of ninrān.

In modern times, the past perfect, the present perfect and the future perfect are used with a past participle and the finite verbal form in the past, present and future of the root iru. e. g. ceytii iruntāṇ (he had done), ceytirukkiṇṇāṇ (he has done), ceytii irunppāṇ (he would have done). Similarly, the forms of the past perfect continuous, the present perfect continuous and the future perfect continuous are also found. e.g. ceytukoṇṭiruntāṇ, ceytukoṇṭirukkiṇṛāṇ, ceytukoṇṭiruppāṇ.

The past and the future tenses may respectively correspond to the agrist and the second future in Sanskrit. The causal verbs also are used in all the three tenses in the same way as simple verbs. The latter is formed by adding to the root, the tense sign and the personal termination, while the former by adding to the root, the causal suffix vi or pi, the tense sign and the personal terminations or by adding the tense sign and the personal terminations to the causal form of the root as ākkū, tiruttū, etc.

3.2222212. ACTIVE NEGATIVE VOICE: Tolkappiyanar has hinted about the active negative voice in his statement that case-suffixes will be used even after nouns qualifying a

C. D. G. 494 and J. A. Onzieme Serie Tome XIII, p. 116.

172 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

negative verb,1 and also has mentioned the term etirmagai in the sutra

> Ecca v-ummai-y-u m-etirmarai y-ummai-y-um Tattam-un mayanku m-uṭaṇilai y-ilavē,

(Tol. Col. 283.)

From the literature of the Sangam and medieval periods we may infer that the negation was expressed in six ways:—

- By inserting the negative particle al between the root and the personal termination.
 - (c. g.) cel-l-al-am (we will not go). (P.N. 101.1.) ari-y-al-an (he does not know). (P.N. 239.9.)
- (2) By inserting the negative particle al or il between the tense sign and the personal termination.
 - (e. g.) cirantanrii (it is not desirable). (P.N. 75.5.)
 urai-t-t-il-an (he did not say). (P.T. 205.12.)
 kan-t-il-ën (I have not seen). (P.T. 202.2.)
- (3) By inserting al followed by the personal terminations after the affirmative finite forms of verbs.
 - (e.g.) muyańkinēn-allēn (I was not befooled). (P.N. 19.7.) celvēm allēm (we will not go). (P.N. 36.11.) ollān allan (he will not agree). (P.N. 97.21.) peruvār-alar (they will not receive). (P.T. 200.5.)
- (4) By inserting the vowel ā between the root and the tense sign. (This is seen clearly in the third person neuter singular.)
 - (e.g.) ākātū (it will not become). (Tol. E. 71.)

 mutalātū (it will not commence). (Tol. E. 65.)

 pēņātū (it will not agree). (T. 2.6.)
- (5) By adding the personal terminations directly to the root.
 - (e.g.) kāṇēṇ (I will not see). (P.N. 71.5.)
 ollāy (you will not agree). (P.N. 31.6.)
 - Etir-maguttu moli-y-in-un tatta marapig Porunilai tiriyā vēggumai-c collē. (Tol. col. 107.)

ollān (he will not agree). (P.N. 78.9.) vaiyārkaļē (They will not despise).(P.T. 204.10.)

(6) By lengthening the a of roots like var1 and adding the personal terminations.

(e.g.) vārēm (we will not come). (P.N. 145.4.)

The author of Viracoliyam states that āṇ, āḷ, ār, ārkaḷ, ātū, ā, ilaṇ, ilaḷ, ilar, ilarkaḷ, ilatū, ila and others like atōḷi are added after roots to denote taṭai-p-paruḷ or negative meaning.² Its commentator adds that the verbs having the first six terminations denote the future tense, and the verbs having the next six denote the past tense when they (ilaṇ, etc.) are preceded by t, as in naṭantilaṇ, and the present tense when they are preceded by k, as in naṭakkilaṇ. But I am at a loss to know why he did not add the first and the second personal terminations along with the first six and alēṇ, alaṇ, alaṇ, alar, etc. along with the next six.

The authors of Nannul and Ilakkanavilakkam have stated about the negative voice only with respect to ā, the termination of the neuter plural. It is the Rev. C. J. Beschi who has definitely stated that in marai-vinai personal terminations are directly added to roots without any tense sign between them and that ātū is the termination that is added to the root in the third person neuter singular.

At present we have certain forms of verbs which are common both to affirmative and negative voices, ceyyāy and ceyyīr, the second person singular and plural forms respectively. The indeclinable participles ceyyā, unnā also come under that category.

It seems to me that the root in varukingan and varuvan was originally var, though in modern times va is taken to be the root. cf. Tel. ra (come.)

Ān-āļ-ār-ārkaļ-oṭ-ātu-ā-v-ilaṇ-marr-ilaḍ-ilar-um
 Tān-ām-ilarka ḍ-ilatù-ila-tātù-t taṭai-p-poruṭ-kaṇ
 Mēṇām-uraitta marapē-varumikka v-ātoḍi-muṇ
 Nānāvuḍamarrū narraṭai-maṇṇum pirattiyamē.

174 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

The author of Ilakkaṇakkottū gives the following examples to illustrate the identity of viti or affirmative form and marai or negative form. (e.g.) vallār tirai koṭuppar (the weak will pay tribute), vallār tirai koṭvar (the strong will take tribute), aruṭāṇ (one who has the favour or one who has not the favour), vekuṭāṇ (one who is irritable or one who is not irritable).¹
C. J. Beschi says nōvāṇ is common to both (It means, he won't suffer or he will suffer). Similarly one of the commentators on Naṇṇūl says that cāvāṇ means, either he will die or he won't die.

These examples show that the fact whether they denote negation or assertion is ascertained either from the context or perhaps from the difference in the position of the accent. As regards the words like ceyyāy and ceyyīr, they seem to have had the accent on the first syllable if they denoted assertion and on ā or ī if they denoted negation. Originally, they may have been respectively imperative second person singular and plural. The same may have been pronounced with such a tone as to convey interrogative sense as is done even now. From such interrogative uses, the negative meanings of such forms may have been developed.

WHAT IS THE ORIGIN OF 'A' OF ATU IN MUTALATU'? VARATU, Etc. A is said by Tolkappiyanar to be one of the terminations added to verbal themes to denote neuter plural, and it is not stated there that it denotes neuter plural only in the negative voice; but he uses such verbs as ākā in Tol. E. 60, navilā in Tol. E. 74, mikā in Tol. E. 263 only with a negative meaning. The author of Nannūl has definitely stated that ā is used to denote neuter plurals only in the negative voice.² Hence I think that ā began to be considered in the earliest times as the particle of negation in neuter plural. Afterwards, forms

Vallār tigai-koļvar, vallār tigai-koţuppar; . . . aruļān vekuļān ivai col-l-ongē viti-viņaiyum magai-viņai-y-um-āyiņa. (I K. p. 39.)

Aā trra pala-v-iņ paţarkkai
 Ā-v-ē etir-marai-k kaņņa tākum. (Na. 329.)

like tiriyatii¹, mutalātii² which are found in Tolkāppiyam may have been formed by adding the neuter singular termination tis to the theme formed by the root with the negative particle ā suffixed to it. Then this particle ā may have been used in verbal nouns like ceyyāmai and then it may have given room to the idea that it (ā) existed even in the form ceyyāy.³

If so, how are we to account for the participial form ceyyā in ceyyāningān which denotes affirmation. Tolkāppiyanār has not mentioned it. Cēṇāvaraiyar says that ceyyā was changed to ceyyā. Hence ā of the verbal participle ceyyā in ceyyāningān is not a negative particle. Later on, ceyyā may have heen used as a negative participle also.

3.2222213. PASSIVE AFFIRMATIVE VOICE: Tolkappiyanar has not stated anything about the passive affirmative voice or
viti-c-ceyappāṭṭuviṇai as is called by the author of llakkaṇakkottu.
But in connection with the third case he (Tolkappiyaṇar) states
that the third case-suffix is used to denote the kartā or the doer of
the action also. This is possible only if passive voice was current
in his time. Besides he uses the expression eṇa-p-paṭupa in Tol.
E. 1. But passive forms are rare in the literature of the ancient
period. (e.g.) kaippaṭukkappaṭṭāy nī (Ka. T. Vol. 2. 548. 15). In
the literature and inscriptions of the medieval period, verbs in
passive voice are frequently used.

(e.g.) ceyyappattadu (it was done). (Ep. I. Vol. XVII, Part VII. V. G. p. 330, line 30 & 31.)

irakkappattadu (it was taken down). (Ibid. line 112.)
ennappattadu (it was said so). (Ibid. line 110.)

kudukkappattadu (it was given). (I.A. Vol. 22, p. 71 M. M.P.) (for kodukkappattadů.)

ilittapperukuvatākavum (so that it may be despised). (S. I. I. ii, 509.)

kaţţappaţţû (having been built). (T. 20, 6.)

Yā-v-en vinā-v-u m-ā-y-iya ririyāţū. (Vol. E. 176.)

Ā-v-ō ṭallatū yakara mutalātū. (ibid. 65.)

Etir-marai-k-kan marai-y-unarttum iţai-nilai-y-u m-unmaiyan. (Vol. Col. 450, Cenă.)

176 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

On the basis of these later passive formations, the author of Viracoliyam has stated that in the karmakaraka or passive voice, the root patu, or some other one is added to the original root followed by 'a' and then the personal terminations are added. Its commentator mentions taku in addition to patu. From the fifth example mentioned above, the root peru also may be added to the list.

The author of Nannūl has not mentioned anything about it. The author of Pirayōkavivēkam mentions it in the commentary on P. V. 36. The author of Ilakkaņakkottū agrees with the author of Vīracōliyam and adds that the active form itself may be used for the passive.² Examples for the latter are found in the Sangam works.

vaļaii (for vaļaikkappatļu) (having been surrounded).

(P.N. 18, 1.)

talīi for (taluvappatļu) (having been adhered to). (Pattu. 224, 301.)

It seems to me that, before the time of Viracoliyam and even for some time after him, the expressions arwappaṭṭāṇ, ariyatla-kuvaṇ may have been viewed as made up of two words ariya and paṭṭāṇ and ariya and takuvaṇ. This is perhaps the reason why Naṇṇūlār has not mentioned it. Besides, passive voice is also formed, as Dr. Caldwell says, 'by means of the preterite verbal participle of any neuter active verb followed by the preterite third person singular neuter of the verbs to become, to be, to go, or occasionally to end.'3 (e.g.) atu muṭintatū, (it was finished); atu muṭintāyiṛṛū (it was finished). Sometimes, expressions like aṭi uṇṭāṇ for aṭikkappaṭṭāṇ also are used. I quite agree with Dr.

Viņai-k-kurippēţū karumam-paţarkkaiyin mikka-v-onţai
 Anaittennalām-a-v voṭu-paṭu-t-tātu-piṇn-ām-iyaṛkai
 Taṇai-k-karumam-perun tātu-k-kaṇ-maṛţum paṭu-viṇaipēl

Ninaikka-varu-mar r-ivaiyum-peyarcco nikarttiţumē. (V. K. 11.)

^{2.} I. K. p. p. 44 and 45.

C. D. G. 464.

Caldwell that in colloquial Tamil 'the root patu is sometimes added even to intransitive roots and sometimes to denote, other than passive signification 1 (e.g.) nan nangay cappitappattavan does not mean 'I have been well-eaten, but I am accustomed to eat well!'

But on the whole, the genius of the Tamil language is to avoid the passive voice as far as possible. This is one of the important points where Tamil differs from Sanskrit.

3.2222214. PASSIVE NEGATIVE VOICE. The passive negative voice is formed in the same way as the passive affirmative voice, except that the particles of negation are added here to the roots followed by such auxiliary verbs as paper. Hence the following forms may be had:

cirakkappaṭṭatanṛū (it is not considered advisable).
kāṇappaṭṭilatù (it was not found).
uraikkappaṭṭinṛù (it was not said).
kāṇappaṭēṇ (I will not be found).
kāṇappaṭāṇ (he will not be found).
kāṇappaṭāṭù (it will not be found).
kāṇappaṭāṭù (it will not be found).

Such a use of negative voice is not at all found in Sanskrit and is a peculiar development in Tamil language.

3.222222. IMPERATIVE MOOD: 3.2222221. AFFIRMA-TIVE VOICE: Tolkāppiyaṇār mentions that the form ceyyāy of the second person singular is sometimes used as cey² and in such cases ī or ē preceded by a suitable consonant is added after it,³ as ceṇṛī (from the root cel) and niṇmē (from the root nil). This evidently holds good in the affirmative voice. He has not definitely stated the exact forms that should be used in the imperative mood. But from the literature of the Sangam period we

Ibid. 468.

Ceyyā y-ennu munnilai vinai-c-cor Cey-y-en kiļavi y-ākiṭa n-uṭaittē. (Tol. Col. 450.)

Munnilai munna r ī-y-u m-ē-y-um
 Annilai marapin mey-y-ūrntu varumē. (ibid. 451).

are able to understand that the forms ceyyāy, cey, ceyyi, ceyyī and ceyyai were used as second person singular and ceyyīr and ceymin as second person plural in the affirmative voice of the imperative mood.

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(e.g.) ariyāy (know). (A.N. 268, 1.)
kēļ (listen). (Pattu. 131, 38.)
cel (go). (Ka. T. Vol. 2, 477, 32.)
varaiti (allot). (P.N. 8, 7.)
ceṇrī (go). (Ka. T. Vol. 542, 15.)
kaṇṭī (find). (Ibid. 542, 8.)
kēṭṭai (listen). (Ibid. 546, 23.)
kāṇīr (see). (Cilap. 209, 12. & 265, 226.)
cērmiņ (reach). (P.N. 9, 5.)
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In the literature of the medieval period, the form ceyminkal formed by adding kal to the plural form ceymin is frequently used. (e.g.) toluminkal (T. 32. 9.) cērminkalē (P.T. 58, 1).

The author of Viracoliyam mentions that the root form like cey is used as the second person singular, the forms like ceyyum, ceymin and ceyyame as honorific singular and the forms like ceyyunkal and ceyminkal as the second person plural in the affirmative voice of the imperative mood.¹

As regards the form ceyyum it was used at the time of Tolkāppiyaṇār only as the third person singular and third person neuter plural in the indicative mood². If that is so, we have to explain how the same form began to be used in honorific singular of the second person imperative mood at the time of Vīracoliyam. It seems to me that the latter form is not the same ceyyum but is

Onkāta-munnilai-p pāl-ēval-ānkā l-orumavy-ir-cu-p Pānkār-cirappilā mēyu-min-ka-p-panmai y-ām-itattu Ninkāta-minkaļun kaļļām-icai-v-in-ir ka-v-v-enpatān Tānkā-p-parōkka-t tiņir-pōlumām-enpar tāl-kuļalē.
 (V, K, 9.)

Pallör paţarkkai munnilai tanmai
 A-v-vayin muntu nikaļun kālattu-c
 Ceyyu m-ennun kiļavi-y-oţû koļļā. (Tol. Col. 227.)

the corrupted form of ceymin or ceymê through the intermediate stage ceyum. Still the old form ceyyum was used in the Tolkāppiyan sense by Kampar—malai-k-kunramanaiyān varum (Kampar, A. 214, 2.), kaiyai-k-kaiyinerikkum (Kampar, A. 220, 11). In the colloquial speech of modern days ceyyum is used only in the honorific singular. The form ceyyāmē may have been originally used in the sense flet us go' where 'us' refers to the person spoken to and the speaker and then was used as the second person honorific singular. But this form seems to be extinct now.

Nannūlār follows the author of Viracoliyam as regards the singular but mentions the termination min alone as regards the plural.²

At the present day the forms that are used in the affirmative voice of the imperative mood, in collequial speech, are the same as those mentioned by the author of Viracoliyam except the form ceyyāmē.

It seems to me that the form coyya vēṇṭum has also been used in the imperative mood since the time of Tolkāppiyaṇār.³ This form appears to be a kind of periphrastic formation made up of the gerundial form of a root followed by vēṇṭum—the future form of the root vēṇṭu primarily signifying request. Perhaps this periphrastic formation was devised to supply the gap in the first and third persons in the imperative system.

3.2222222. NEGATIVE VOICE: Tolkāppiyanār has not definitely stated any form to represent the negative voice in the

Naţa-vā maţi-cī viţu-kū vē-vai
 No-p-pō vau-v-uri fi-uṇ-porun tirun-tiŋ
 Tēy-pār cel-vav vāl-kē l-a∴ keŋgū
 Eytiya v-irupāŋ mūŋgā m-iggavum
 Cey-y-e ŋ-ēval viŋai-p-pakā-p patamē. (Na. 137.)

Ir-īr īrra iranţu m-iru-tinai-p Panmai munnilai min-avar reval. (Na. 337.)

Itu-ceyal vēņţu m-ennun kiļavi
 Iru-vayi nilaiyum poruţ-ţ-ā kum-mē
 Tanpā l-ānum piran-pā l-ānum. (Tol. Col. 243.)

imperative mood, though he has used the two words aliyal and affical in the second person singular, imperative negative voice in Tol. Porul. 146. But from the literature of the different periods we may say that the following forms ceyyal, ceyyāy, ceyyāli, ceyyēl were used in the singular and ceyyīr in the plural. (e.g.)

peyaral (do not change). (P. N. 3. 14.)

ēkal (do not go). (Kampar. A. 225. 19.)

nīnikāy (do not go away). (Ka. T. Vol. 2, 470. 21.)

nillāti (do not stand). (Ibid. 468. 21.)

uļ aļiyēl (do not feel sorry). (Kampar. A. 225. 18.)

ayarēl (do not feel sorry). (Kampar. A. 239. 38.)

ayarīr (Plural), (Kampar. A. 275. 87.)

Besides it seems the form ceyyavēņļā was used both in the singular and the plural. (e.g.) nī varuntavēņţā (P. N. 101, 10).

In modern times the forms that are used in colloquial speech are ceyyay or ceyvate in the singular, ceyyateyum in the honorific singular and ceyyattr or ceyyateyunkal in the plural.

It appears that, at the time of Tolkāppiyaṇār and the author of Vīracōliyam, the imperative mood expressed not only command but also request, wish, etc. more or less in the same way as the imperative in Sanskrit. This is clearly seen from the statements of Tolkāppiyaṇār¹ and the author of Vīracōliyam² that the optative mood is used only in the third person singular and plural. But at the time of Naṇṇūlār, it seems to me that the imperative began to be restricted only to denote command and the optative began to be used to denote wish, request, etc. since he says that the optative forms like celka, celliya and celliyar could be used in both singular and plural of all persons.

Avarruļ
 Munnilai tanmai y-ā-y-ī-r iţattoţů
 Mannā t-ākum viyānköţ kiļavi. (Tol. Col. 226.)

Oñkāta-munnilai-p-pāl-ēval-ākkā l-orumai-y-ig-cu-p Pāhkār-cigappilā mē-y-u min-ka-p-panmai-y-ām-iţattu Nīhkāta-minkaļ-uh kal-ţ-ām-icai-v-inigka-v-v-enpatān Tāhkā-p-parōkka-t t-in-ig-pōlum-ām-enpar-tāţ-kulalē.

There is one difference between the imperative mood in Tamil and that in Sanskrit; in the former, it is used only in the second person, except in the case of instances like ceyyavēnṭum which appear to represent a type of periphrastic imperative formation as explained above, whereas in the latter, it is used in all persons.

3.222223. OPTATIVE MOOD; 3.2222231. AFFIRMA-TIVE VOICE: Active voice in the optative mood in Tamil verbs expresses request, injunction, wish, etc. in the same way as the Sanskrit potential, and benediction as the Sanskrit benedictive. Tolkappiyanar mentions that viyankol or optative mood is used only in the third peson, both singular and plural where it has the same form in āṇpāl, peṇbāl, palarpāl, oṇraṇpāl and palaviṇpāl. But what its form is he does not seem to have mentioned. He uses the verbs arital and kāṭṭal as optative mood in Tol. Col. 458 and 463 respectively.

The author of Viracoliyam agrees with Tolkappiyanar in the meaning and the use of the optative mood and improves upon him by saying that its from is obtained by adding 'ka' to the roots. Nannular differs form them both in its application and the form. It is used in all persons and numbers and the forms mentioned are ceyka, ceyyiya and ceyyiyar. The author of Ilakkanavilakkam agrees with Nannular in its application, but as regards its formation he adds the forms ending in al, al, um, mār and ai.

Eñciya kiļavi y-iţattoţû civaņi
 Ai-m-pāţku m-uriya tönţa l-āţē, (Tol. Col. 225,)
 Avarţuļ
 Munnilai tanmai y-ā-y-ī-r iţattoţû
 Mannā t-ākum viyanköţ kiļavi. (ibid. 226.)

V. K. 9. See F. N. p. 180, 2.

Ka-ya-v-oţu ra-v-v-oŢ Ţ-lŢŢa viyañkōļ Iyalu m-iţam-pā l-eñku m-enpa. (Na. 338.)

Ka-ya-v-oţū ra-v-v-or r-al-āl um-mār Ai-kā nīrra viyankön murravai Eytu m-iţam-pā ļ-enku m-enpa. (I. V. 239.)

182 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

The opinion of the author of the Ilakkaṇavilakkam seems to me to be the most acceptable when we take into consideration the forms used in the literature from the Sangam period onwards. He has himself given quotations in his commentary on the sutra 239. The following may be added to them.

vāļiya nī (May you live long). (Ka. T. Vol., 2. 583. 21.)
vāļiyar yāṇ (May I live long). (P. N. 365. 9.)
vāḷiyar pala (May many prosper). (P. N. 371. 25.)
nī vāḷiyar (May you live long). (P. N. 137. 14.)
ceytēṇ ākuka (May I be considered to have done it).
(P. N. 71. 9.)

celvai y-ākuvai (May you be considered to have gone).
(P. N. 70. 15.)

(The last two may be regarded as periphrastic formations.) In addition to these it seems the form coyyāy also was used in the second person singular of the affirmative voice of the optative mood. (e.g.) kāvāy kövē (Ohking! may you protect). (Kampar. A. 241. 41.)

In colloquial speech such forms as vāļattum, vāļakkaṭavāṇ vāļakkaṭavāļ etc., are generally used in the third person.

3.2222232. NEGATIVE VOICE: In the negative voice such forms as 'peyaral' formed by adding the negative particle al to the root are found, e.g., nin cor peyaral (P. N. 3. 14.) which means 'may your command never change'. They may have arisen under the following conditions:—Forms like peyarāy-allāy may have been in use in the second person singular similar to celvēm allēm (P. N. 36, 11) in the first person plural, ollān allan (P. N.97, 21) in the third person singular. Then peyarāy-allāy may have been reduced to peyar-al in the same way as ceyyāy to cey. Or forms like peyar-alāy may have been in use similar to cellalam (P. N. 101, 1), ariyalam (P.N. 239, 9.) and they may have been reduced to peyar-al.

In colloquial Tamil at present the form $v\bar{a}l\bar{a}y\bar{a}ka$ (I wish you not to prosper) is generally used in the negative voice. This may be considered to be a periphrastic formation made up of a negative verb in the negative voice of the indicative mood and the optative affirmative form āka of the root 'ā'.

3.222224. ECCAM OR INFINITIVE MOOD: Eccam is primarily divided into two classes peyar-eccam and vinai-y-eccam.

3.2222241. PEYAR-ECCAM: Peyar-eccam corresponds to the participle in Sanskrit. It is of four kinds:—active affirmative relative participle, active negative relative participle, passive affirmative relative participle and passive negative relative participle. Each of these may be further divided into three according as it denotes the past, present or future action. Invariably each qualifies a noun following it.

3.22222411. ACTIVE AFFIRMATIVE RELATIVE PAR-TICIPLE: According to Tolkappiyanar the form ceyta is the past active affirmative relative participle and the form ceyyum is both the present and the future active affirmative relative participle.1 The finite verbs, which take 'in' as in urankinan to denote the past, have their active affirmative relative participle in the form urankiya. (e.g.,) man tininta nilanum (The land full of earth) (P. N. 2. 1.); nilan ēntiya vicumpum (The sky which is above the land) (P.N. 2. 2.); mutti-vilakkil tuñcum porköttimayamum (P. N. 2. 23, 24.) (The Himalayas with gold peaks where sleep (the deer) in the light of triad-fire). Here tuncum is the present relative participle; tenpula vālnarkku arunkatan irukkum . putalvar (sons who offer oblations to manes residing in the south) (P. N. 9. 3). Here irukkum is the future relative participle. The form ceykinga as the present active affirmative relative participle is scarcely found anywhere in Sangam works. I came across the word 'cērkinga' in the sentence 'cērkinga kankavin, in Paripātal (Pari. 163. 35). This may be taken as a participial noun in the plural number meaning "those that join" and qualifying the plural noun kan. The form 'iravaninga, which is found in Kural 1157 may be explained in the same way.

Nilanum poruļ-uk kālam-uk karuvi-y-um Viņai-mutar kiļavi-y-um viņai-y-u m-uļa-p-paṭa A-v-v-aru poruţkum-ö r-anna v-urimaiya Ceyyuñ ceyta v-ennuñ collē. (Tol. Col. 234.)

184 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

But in the literature and inscriptions of the medieval period, present active affirmative participles of the forms ceykinga and ceyyāninga are found in large numbers.

(e.g.) celvam-uyarkinga celvar (Rich men who are becoming richer). (T. 1. 5.) cellāninga ānţu (The year which is passing). (T. A. S. i. 14.)

It also seems to me that the form ceykira was very frequent in colloquial speech of that period. Hence the author of the Viracolivam says that the present participle is formed by adding kira, aninga or cu to the root. The past participle is formed according to him by the addition of ta, na or ya and the future participle by that of kum or um.1 In the example cey cattan, he seems to take cev and cattan as separate words where cey is the present active affirmative relative participle which is formed by adding the participle cu (corresponding to su, the nominative singular suffix in Sanskrit) which is evidently dropped afterwards. This is done by him only to get the designation pada to cey, since, according to him, pada is 'suptinantam.' But ceycattan may be taken as a compound and hence it would have been better if he had omitted it. In kira and aninga mentioned by him it seems to me that 'a' is the sign of the participle and kiru and aningu are the present tense signs. I do not know why he failed to mention the form ceykinga which was frequently used in the works that were written before his time.

The author of Nannul follows him, but substitutes the form ceykinga for the form ceykina.2 The author of the Ilakkanavilakkam

Pētamali-y-u m-etirin-kan-ākum piravum-vantāl Ētam-il catirān-tam-pilai-y-ā-ma l-iyarri-k-koļļē.

(V. Tāt. 7.)

Ceyta ceykinga ceyyum-en-pāṭṭil
Kālam-uñ ceyal-un tōnri-p-pāl-oṭ
ceyva t-āṭi aru-poruṭ peyarum
Eñca nirpatu peyar-ec cam-m-ē. (Na. 340.)

^{1.} Tātu-v-iņ-piņpu ta-ṇa-ya-v-irappi nikaţci-y-in-kaṇ Otuņ-kira-cu-v-v-o ţ-āninra-v-ān-kum-m-um m-ōţū-ma&kān

follows Nannūlār.1

3.22222412. ACTIVE NEGATIVE RELATIVE PARTICI-PLE: In the ancient period only the form ceyyāta seems to have been in use and it may have been used in all tenses. (e.g.) payan illāta col (word which is of no use) (K, 198). Even now the form ceyyōta is used in all tenses though more frequently in the past and the future: (e.g.)

> itai-c-ceyyāta paiyan aţikkappaţţān (the boy who did not do this was beaten). (Colloq.)

> itai-c-ceyyāta paiyan aţikkappaţukirān (the boy who does not do this is beaten). (Colleg.)

itai-c-ceyyāta paiyan aţikkappaţuvān (the boy who will not do this will be beaten). (Collog.)

Besides the form ceyyāta, the periphrastic forms ceyyāmal irunta, ceyyāmal irukkinga and ceyyāmal irukkum are respectively used in the past, present and future tenses.

3.22222413. PASSIVE AFFIRMATIVE RELATIVE PARTICIPLE. In the works of the ancient period perhaps except in Kural it seems that there was no form belonging to this class. In the later periods the forms ceyyappaṭṭa, ceyyappaṭu-kiṇṛa and ceyyappaṭum are used in the past, present and future tense respectively. (e.g.)

kuyavanār ceyyappatta kutam (pot which was made by the potter). (Collog.)

taccanār ceyya ppaļukinra nārkāli (chair which is made by the capenter). (Collog.)

aracanār kattappatum māļikai (palace built by the king). (Colloq.)

3.22222414. PASSIVE NEGATIVE RELATIVE PARTI-CIPLE: As in the case of forms of passive affirmative relative

Avarruļ
 Ceyta ceykinga ceyyum-en pāṭṭil
 Ceyva t-āṭi agu-poruţ peyar-oṭi
 Muṭiyu muraiyatù peyar-ec cam-m-ē. (I. V. 243.)

participle, it seems to me that there were no forms for this in the ancient period except in Kural. In the later periods, the form ceyyappaţāta was used in all tenses. In modern times the periphrastic forms ceyyappaṭāmal-irunta, ceyyppaṭāmal irukkinga and ceyyappaṭāmal-irukkum are also found used in the past, present and future tenses respectively. (c.g.) kēṭkappaṭāta cevi (K. 418).

The author of the Pirayökavivěkam says that the suffix denoting the active participles corresponds to śatr pratyaya and kānac pratyaya in Sanskrit and the passive participles like ceyyappaţṭa end in kānacpratyaya. It must be noted here that śatr and kānac in gaccan and gamyamāna are two entirely different pratyayas, while 'a' in ceyta and ceyyappaṭṭa is one and the same.

3.22222415. WHAT IS THE ORIGIN OF 'A', THE END-ING OF THE PRESENT AND PAST PARTICIPLES CEYKINRA, IRAVANINRA, CEYTA, ETC. 1 From the use of the words ceykinga and igavaninga in the Paripatal and the Kural1 respectively qualifying plural nouns kan and valai, it seems to me that ceykinga, igavāninga and ceyta may have been the nominative neuter plurals of the neuter singular forms ceykingu, igavāningů,2 ceytů, when they were used as participial nouns. I have already shown at some length how the finite verbal forms could be used as participial nouns and declined in all cases. Originally they may have been used to qualify neuter plural nouns, but later on, since the neuter plural nouns like kan, valai, etc. had the same form as the singular as an alternative for kankal, vālaikal, etc. the words like ceykinga may have been used along with singular nouns and later on may have been used to qualify all kinds of nouns. Dr. Caldwell thinks3 that 'a' is a possessive case sign; but I have already shown that the possessive case sign 'a' mentioned by Nannūlar may have evolved from 'a' the sign of the neuter plural in verbs.

Ceykinga kan. (Pari. 163, 35.)
 Igavāninga vaļai. (K. 1157.)

^{2.} Ceykingů:—cey (root) + ku (cāriyai) + in (cāriyai) + rů (neuter singular termination.)

C. D. G. 523.

3.2222242. VINAI-Y-ECCAM: Vinai-y-eccam corresponds to indeclinable past participles like Sanskrit gatvā and gerunds like gantum in Sanskrit, and infinitive verbal forms denoting condition and cause, which are not found in Sanskrit.

The indeclinable past participles are of two kinds—the affirmative past participle and the negative past participle. The affirmative indeclinable past participial forms are according to Tolkāppiyaṇār ccytù, ccyyū and ccypū. He does not mention the negative indeclinable past participial forms; but uses the form kollātū in Tol. Col. 198, and this form is frequently used in literature. (e.g.) vāyil viṭātū kōyīl pūkkēm (we entered the palace without informing the gate-keeper) (P. N. 67. 10). According to Tolkāppiyaṇār, the forms that are gerunds are ccyyiyar, ccyyiya, ccyaṛkū, ccyteṇa and ccya, and the form that is used as infinitive denoting condition is ccyiṇ.

cey. It denotes an action done previous to that which is denoted by the verb which it qualifies. (e.g.) ceytù vantān. It may be noted here that this suffix tu and the stem tu of the suffixes tum, tvā tavē and tōḥ,in gantum, gatvā, sartavē and gantōḥ of Vēdic Sanskrit are similar. In addition to the form ceytù, the forms pōy and uranki are used. Here tu is not added to the root, but y or i is added. If i happened to be the earlier suffix, it may be said that it was changed to y² in the case of certain verbs. These forms ceytù, uranki and pōy have lived to the present day, unlike the forms ceyyū and ceypū.

CEYYŪ: Cēṇāvaraiyar and Nacciṇārkkiṇiyar mention that this denotes an action done previous to that denoted by the verb finite or infinite which it qualifies.³ (e.g.) itas puṭaiyū . . . erri

(Tol. Col. 228.)

Ceytù ceyyū-c ceypù ceyteṇa-c Ceyyiyar ceyyiya ceyiṇ-ceya-c ceyarkeṇa A-v-vakai y-onpatum vinai-y-eñcu kilavi.

^{2.} Cf. Ikara yakara m-iruti viravum. (Tol. E. 58.)

Ukāram unnūvantān, tiņņū-vantān enappiņ-varum tolirkū itai-y-iņri muņ-varum

(Pattu. 227. 376). But there are examples where it denotes an action more or less simultaneous with that denoted by the verb which it qualifies. Thus in the sentence 'tōṭ ōcci valan vaṭai-yūu-p-pakal makiṭ tūṅkum' (Pattu. 136. 145.) which means 'dancing at day time with the left shoulder bent towards the right', the word vaṭaiyūu qualifies the present participle tūṅkum and the action of bending denoted by it remains so long as the action of dancing denoted by tūṅkum remains. Hence it seems that Teyvaccilaiyār has mentioned that this form ceyyū may denote an action simultaneous with that of the word which it qualifies.¹ This form ceyyū sometimes changes to ceyyū.²

The author of the Pirayōkavivēkam says that this corresponds to the form kāram in Sanskrit where the namulpratyaya is added to the root.³ There is no purpose served by taking it so. This has almost given place to the form ceyyā even in the ancient period. (e.g.) katavu eriyā civanturāy (P. N. 4. 10).

CEYPÜ: Cenavaraiyar thinks that this denotes an action simultaneous with that which is denoted by the word which it qualifies. Teyvaccilaiyar and Naccinarkkiniyar quote one and the same sentence 'pularā-p-paccilai-y-iţai-y-uţupu toţutta' where the action denoted by uţupu is previous to that denoted by toţutta and hence think that the form csypu may also denote an action previous to that denoted by the verb which it qualifies. This agrees with the use of the word 'teripu' in teripu-vēţu kilattal (Tol. Col. 49) by Tolkappiyanar himself. This like ceyyu, is practically extinct.

The form CEYYĀTÛ evidently denotes the absence of an action that should have been done before that denoted by the verb which it qualifies. (e.g.) nirayan koļ pavarotu on tātu

tolin-mēl iranta-kālam parri varum.

(Tol, Col. 228. Cēṇā.)

- Ceyyū-enpatù iranta-kālamum nikal-kālamum kāṭṭum. (Tol. Col. 228, Tey.)
- 2. Ceyyā v-ennum viņai-y-encu kiļaviyum. (Tol. E. 223.)
- Ceyyā-c ceyyū-c ceypu-v-e n-eccan Kamuñ-ē namul-ē yap-p-ena l-ākum. (P. V. 38, Comm.)

ömpumati (P. N. 5, 6 & 7). The form ceyyāmai is used in the same sense by Tolkāppiyaṇār in the sūtra

Aţai-ciṇai, mutal-eṇa murai-mūnru mayankāmai Naţai-per riyalum vaṇṇa-c ciṇai-c-col. (Tol. Col. 26.)

In addition to them the form ceyyāmal is found in Sangam works. (e.g.) tīrāmar kāppatör tiranuntēl (Ka. T. Vol. 1, 287. 13.): ceyyāmar ceyta-v-utavi (K. 101). The latter form is more frequently used in modern days than the former.

What could have been its origin? I venture to suggest the following explanation:—

From the frequent use of compound forms like celvēm allēm (P. N. 31. 11.), tolutaṇam allamō (P. N. 60. 6.) in old Tamil literature, it may not be unreasonable to suppose that a compound formation of the type of kāṇām allām was also current beside the forms kāṇēm allēm, and kāṇvaṇam allam. Now it is easy to see how an extended form like kāṇāmal representing the negative indeclinable participle may have sprung up, by the line of separation being erroneously drawn between kāṇāmal and ām. In all probability, the form kāṇāmal which arose in this manner may have been used first in association with a verb of the first person plural and subsequently may have acquired an extended use in association with other persons and numbers also. Then the forms like ceyyāmal may have sprung up. The form ceyyāmēl is also found in use.

GERUNDS: CEYYIYAR AND CEYYIYA: These mean exactly 'for the purpose of doing'. Hence they qualify a word which denotes an action previous to that denoted by itself. These two are practically extinct now. It is worth noting that the grunds ceyyiyar and ceyyiya are similar in form to that of the finite verbs in the optative mood. cf. nī vāliyar (P.N. 137.14); vāliya nī (Ka. T. Vol. 2.583.21).

CEYARKÜ: This conveys the same sense as ccyytyar and ccyyiya. In form it appears to be the fourth case of the verbal

Añcana vannan-en n-ār-uyir nāyaka n-āļāmē
 (my dear life-giver, blue in colour as collyrium, not ruling.) (Kampar, Kuka. 14.)

noun ceyal. It is similar to the form sartavě in Vedic Sanskrit since both the forms are dative. Examples like vararků (to come) (P. N. 64. 7), valañ-ceyarků (to go round in clock-wise direction) (P. N. 6. 18) are very frequent in literary works. But in modern times the form ceyvatarků is more frequently used than the form ceyarků.

CEYA: This conveys the same meaning as ceyyiyar, ceyyiya and ceyarků, when it qualifies a finite verb, a participle, indeclinable past participle or another gerund. This is sometimes used as an absolute. In examples like malai peyya, kulam niraintatů, (rain falling, the tank became full) the gerund peyya denotes an action previous to that denoted by the verb niraintatů which follows it; and in examples like ñāyiru pata, avan vantān, (the sun setting, he came) the gerund pata denotes an action simultaneous with that denoted by the verb vantān which follows it: It may also denote an action subsequent to that denoted by the verb which it qualifies (e.g.) makkal cukamāy irukka tantai paṇañ cērtiān. (The father amassed wealth so that his children might live happily.) This form has lived to the present day. Sometimes, the form ceyya takes its place.

CEYIN: This means 'if you do'. A similar infinitive form is not found in Sanskrit. This form ceyin is frequently used in the works of the Sangam period. (e.g.) paricil nalkuvaiyāyin (if you give presents) (P. N. 116. 5). This may be taken as an ablative infinitive. It is similar in form to the ablative infinitive gantāh in Vēdic Sanskrit, though they differ in sense. The form is gradually giving place to the form ceytāl which is evidently a third case formed from the stem ceytā. (e.g.) enniyiruntāl (if you have thought) (Kampar. A. 276. 88.)

In the ancient period the negative form corresponding to ceyin is ceyinallāl. (e.g.) nin kan perinallāl (Ka. T. Vol. 2, 524. 8). In modern days the forms ceyyāviţin and ceyyāviţţāl are used instead.

CEYTENA: This form is generally used as an absolute, though there are instances like viluttakai perukena vēntutum (Pari. 93. 117) where it is used like other gerunds. It generally denotes the cause of the action denoted by the verb which follows it. (e.g.) putuppeyal polintena kövalar . . . vēru pulam parappi (Since there were new showers, shepherds having gone to new lands) (Pattu. 323, 2 to 4) and hence it should invariably denote an action previous to that denoted by the verb which follows it. This form has almost died out.

In addition to the above forms, Tolkāppiyaṇār has mentioned the forms ceytapin, ceytamun, ceytakkāl, ceyvali, ceyyiṭam, etc., which end in the words pin, mun, etc. which denote time.

Besides, the form ceyinum is used in the literature of the ancient period in the sense 'though one does'. (e.g.) nī vēntinum (though you want) (Ka. T. Vol. 2,576,20). This is evidently formed from ceyin by the addition of the particle um. This is to a certain extent parallel to the form kṛtvāpi (kṛtvā+api) in Sanskrit.

The author of the Vīracoliyam mentions that the particles paruṭṭū, ka, pāṇ, taṛkū, vāṇ and a are added after roots to give the sense of tumanta (i.e.) gerunds.¹ The examples for the same are found in the commentary under the same stanza:—
They are uṇṇutaṛporuṭṭu vantāṇ (he came to eat), kaṛka tāṛpariyattāṇ (he intended to read), paṭṣppāṇ vantāṇ (he came to read,) pōtaṛkū niṇaintāṇ (he thought to go), aṛwāṇ karuttuṇṭū (he desired to know), uṇṇa vallaṇ (he is able to eat). Here it is evident that the forms uṇṇutaṛporuṭṭū and pōtaṛkū are respectively the fourth case of the verbal nouns uṇṇutal and pōtal. The forms kaṛka and uṇṇa come under the same category as ceya mentioned by Tolkāppiyaṇār. In the case of paṭṣppāṇ and aṛṭvāṇ in the sentences 'paṭṣppāṇ vantāṇ' and 'aṛṭuāṇ karuttuṇṭū, they may have been originally finite verbs and were later on taken as gerunds.

Pannum-elir-rātu vin-pinpil-ākum pakaril-munpu Tunniya tātu-t tolir-poruṭṭāka v-ennun-toṭarcci Unniya-pōtenrū teyva-p-pulava r-uraittaṇarē.

(V. Tāt. 8.)

Мандин tumantam poruţţû-k-ka-p-pāŋ-tarkû vāŋ-av-enrû

How this happened may thus be explained. Tolkāppiyaṇār recognises the use of a number of finite verbs without conjunctive particles, in syntactic agreement with the same subject. It does not require much effort to see that collocations of this kind—putliyāṇai vantatu kāṇṇāṇ yāṇ taṅkiṇēṇ (I stayed to see the new elephant) (Ka. T. Vol. 2, 592, 7), colliṇāṇ . . . tērṛuvāṇ (Kampar. A. 213, 16), paṇam cērppāṇ paṭippāṇ varuvāṇ (he came to read so that he might earn money) (Colloq.)—may have led to forms like kāṇṇāṇ, cērppāṇ, paṭippāṇ, being taken as gerunds in the sense of cērkka and paṭikka.

Similarly he says that the particles \hat{a} , ittu, tu, u and i are added to roots to convey the sense of tvanta. The examples for the same are, as given in the commentary, unna-p-ponan, untittu-p-ponan, untittu-p-ponan, untu-ponan, pukuntu-ponan, puku-p-ponan, and colli-ningan. Of these a, tu and i have already been mentioned. The particle ittu is evidently the indeclinable past participle of the root itu and it seems to have been used in the colloquial speech at the time of the author of the Viracoliyam as a particle giving the sense of tvanta. The form pukku may have originally been pukku and u may have been shortened to u.

The author of the Neminatam has omitted the forms ceyyiyar and ceyyü mentioned by Tolkappiyanar, since such forms may have gone out of use in his time, incorporated the forms ending in \bar{a} and $p\bar{a}n$ mentioned by the author of the Viracoliyam and has added another form ending in $p\bar{a}kk\dot{u}$.

- Avaitām
 Tattan kiļavi y-aţukkuna varinum
 Ettigat tānum peyar-muti pinavē. (Tol. Col. 429.)
- Ā-v-um-ittu-n-tu-v-v-u- m-u-v-v-inoţiyyu m-arum-pulavar Ēvuń-karuttā v-iru-tolig k-ongiţin munpu-ningû Mēvum-poruţ-ţātu vin-pin-varu-mikka tan-peyarē Pāvum-tuvāntam-a tām-enguraippar pani-moliyē. (V. Tāt. 9.)
- Ceytü ceya-c-c-ceyyā-c ceyyiya ceytena-c Ceypü ceyin-ceyar kenpanavum-moy-kulalāy Pin-mun-pān pākkum pinavum vinai-y-ecca-c Con-mun vakuttör tuņivu, (N. N. Col. 43.)

The author of the Nannul has mentioned all the forms noted by Tolkappiyanar except ceyarki and adopted the forms ending in ā, vān and pān from the author of the Viracoliyam and the forms ending in pākki from the author of the Neminatam.

Cēṇāvaraiyar in his commentary under Tol. Col. 229 me tions the form ending in pākkii and also other forms ending in āl as ceytāl and mal as ceyyāmal (negative), etc. (e.g.) oṇṛu kuṛaipaṭāmal (Cilap. 57. 9.)

Naccinārkkiniyar in his commentary under the same sūtra adds a form ending in vākkū.

The author of the Ilakkaṇaviļakkam repeats what has been said by the author of the Naṇṇūl.?

WHAT IS THE PROBABLE ORIGIN OF THE FORMS ENDING IN PAKKU AND VAKKU? There are three instances where the suffix pakkii is used in the Kural. They are found in the Kural, 136, 164 and 1312. In the first two, the word patupākkii appears and in the last, enpakkir. From the context they mean only patutal and engutal. Pākkū, here, may be understood as a suffix added to a root to form a verbal noun denoting the action alone. Thus a form like patupākku may be analysed into the root patu, the formative suffix pu and ākku the noun form of the root ākii. But the forms ending in pākkii and vākkii mentioned by the authors of the Něminātam and the Nannūl and Naccinarkkiniyar are gerunds. Naccinārkkiniyar quotes a sentence ' punartaru-cevan-taru-pākku-c-cenyān' as an example of the gerund ending in pākkii and quotes a colloquial expression 'koļvākkii vantān' as an example of the gerund ending in vākku. They are very rarely used in literature. What could have been their origin?

Unpākku and koļvākku may have arisen through haplology as crippled forms of unpākkukku and koļvākkukku, the dative singular of unpākku and koļvākku.

Ceytü ceypü ceyyā-c ceyyū-c Ceytena-c ceya-c ceyin ceyyiya ceyyiyar Vān-pān pākkena vinai-y-eccam pira Ainton r-ārum mukkālam-um murai-tarum. (Na. 343.)

⁽I. V. 246.) See f.n. 2 supra.

194 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

The author of the Pirayokavivekam has mentioned only the forms ceyyā, ceyyū, ceypū, ceyin, ceytāl, ceytū and ceya and coins the following sutras to make these forms correspond to those in Sanskrit:-- 'cevyā-c-ceyyū-c-ceybu v-en-eccan-kamuñē, namulē yapbenal ākum' 'enaven eccam itiyenal ākum' 'ceyin ceytāl-ena-ccebbum irantinai iticet t-enpar arinticinore'. These mean that the forms ceyya, ceyya and ceyba respectively correspond to the forms in Sanskrit ending in khamuñ (e.g. caurań karam in cāurankāram ākrōśati), namul (e.g. šmāram šmāram) and yap (e.g. aragamya); the form ceytena corresponds to kytvā iti; the forms ceyin and ceytal correspond to karoti cet. He also mentions that the form ceytù corresponds to kytva and ceya to kartum. Since no useful purpose is served by these sūtras of correspondence, I think they are unnecessary in a treatise on Tamil grammar. -03 M 7007-

In colloquial speech only the form ceytù remains for the indeclinable past participle, the forms ceya and ceytarkù for the gerund, ceyin and ceytal to denote condition and ceytalum and ceyinum to denote contrast in the affirmative; and in the negative voice ceyyamal (e. g. kuraipaṭāmal (Cilap. 57. 9) for the indeclinable past participle, ceyyamal irunppatarkù for the gerund and ceyyamal iruntalum to denote condition and contrast respectively. The presence of many forms for the gerund in the affirmative in the ancient Tamil and only a few in the modern period reminds one of the similar process of change in the history of Sanskrit infinitives.

3.23. ITAI-C-COL:

 3.231. DEFINITION: Tolkāppiyanār mentions in the sūtras

> Ițai-y-cṇa-p paţuva peyaroţum viṇai-y-oţum Naţai-pe<u>r r</u>-iyalum tamakkiyal p-ilavē. (Tol. Col. 249.) Avaitām

Mnnnum pinnu moli-y-atuttu varutalum Tam-m-īru tiritalum piritava nilaiyalum Annavai y-ellā m-uriya v-enpa. (ibid. 251.)

Avaitām

Puṇariya nilai-y-iṭai-p poruṇilai-k-kutanavum Viṇai-ceyan maruṅkir kālamoṭu varunavum Vērrumai-p poruṭ-vayi n-urupā kunavum Acai-nilai-k kiṭavi y-āki varunavum Icai-nirai-k kiṭavi y-āki varunavum Tattaṅ kurippir poruṭ-cey kunavum Oppil vaṭiyār poruṭ-cey kunavum-enrū A-p-pan piṇavē muvaluṅ kālai. (ibid. 250.)

that itai-c-col has no separate existence of its own, it is used along with nouns and verbs either as a part of them or before or after them and consists of the flexional increments, personal terminations of verbs, case-suffixes, particles added for the sake of euphony or for making up the quantity of verse, particles of conjunction and interjection, and those denoting comparison, etc. From this it is clear that itai-c-col in Tamil corresponds to pratyayas and nipūtas in Sanskrit. The author of the Nēminātam repeats the idea contained in Tol. Col. 250 only. The author

Cāriyai-y-ā y-oṇra l-urupāta rań-kurippiņ Ērum poruļ-āta ninricai-y-āy-p-pērtal Viņai-c-corkīr rāta l-icai-niraittu mēval Anaittē y-iţai-c-co l-aļavu, (N. N. Col. 50.)

196 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

of the Nannul summarises in one sutral all that is said by Tolkäppiyanär, in the three sutras mentioned above. The author of the Ilakkanavilakkam² and the Tonnulvilakkam³ more or less repeat what is said by Nannulär. All the commentators of the Tolkäppiyam and the later grammarians think that Tol. Col. 249 deals with the definition of itai-c-col.

But it seems to me that Tolkāppiyanār did not intend either Tol. Col. 249 or all the three sūtras Tol. Col. 249, 251 and 250 for the purpose of defining iţai-c-col; for, the most important feature of iţai-c-col is that it is a pratyaya or formative element or a nipāta. This is suggested by the name iţai-c-col which means 'the side word.' That this is his idea is well seen from the sūtra

Itai-c-col l-ellām vērrumai-c collē. (Tol. Col. 455.) where he says that every itai-c-col is vērrumai-c-col. Here vērrumai-c-col evidently means differentiating element, i. e., an element which differentiates the relation between the governing base or word to which it is appended and the following verb. For instance the case-suffix ai in 'irāmaṇai' specifically defines the character of iramaṇ's relation to the following verb as its object, since the stem irāmaṇ, by itself, admits of several kinds of relation such as the subject, instrument, recipient, etc. Similarly ā in vantāṇā makes the assertive verb vantāṇ an interrogative verb and so on.

Having suggested that itai-c-col is a formative element or a nipāta, Tolkāppiyanār says in Tol. Col. 249 and 251 that it does

- Vērrumai viņai cāriyai oppu urupukaļ
 Tattam poruļa icai-nirai acai-nilai
 Kurippe n-en-pakutiyin tanittiya l-inri-p
 Peyarinum viņaiyinum pin-mun öritattu
 Onrum palavum van tonruva t-itai-c-col. (Na. 420.)
- Vērrumai viņai-cā riyai-y-op purupukaļ
 Tattam poruļa v-icai-nirai y-acai-nilai
 I-t-tira m-ēļir raņittiya l-iņri-p
 Peyariņum viņaiyiņum piņ-muņ n-ōr-iţattü
 Onrum palavum-van toņruva t-iţaiccol, (I. V. 251.)
- 3. T. V. 130.

not possess a separate existence, but is used as a part of nouns or verbs or before or after either of them. He then enumerates them in detail in Tol. Col. 250.

3.232. IS ITAI-C-COL VĂCAKA OR DYŌTAKA? Cēṇā-varaiyar and Teyvaccilaiyār mention in their commentary on Tol. Col. 249 that the word 'tamakkiyalpila' suggests that itai-c-col is not a vācaka but only dyōtaka, i.e. it does not have a meaning of its own, but only suggests that the noun or verb which it accompanies has a particular meaning. They have said so, I think, in imitation of a class of Sanskrit grammarians who hold that upasargas or prepositions and the case-suffixes in Sanskrit are dyōtaka and not vācaka. For instance in upakarōti the element upa does not have any meaning of its own, but suggests that the root kṛ in upakarōti means to help, though it can have other meanings elsewhere. Similarly, the case-suffixes suggest that the base is an object to a verb, recipient, etc.

But I think that this is not quite consistent with the definition given by Tolkāppiyaṇār that col is that which has a meaning. I have already said in 3.1 supra that Tolkāppiyaṇār seems to follow the opinion of the Sanskrit logicians. According to the latter even the pratyayas are vācaka. Besides, even those Sanskrit grammarians who think that upasargas and case-suffixes are dyōtaka take the verbal terminations to be vācaka and not dyōtaka.

If that be so, one may ask what the importance of the word 'tamakkiyalpila' in the sutra Tol. Col. 249 is. It evidently suggests that itai-c-col does not have a separate existence of its own outside nouns or verbs or the sentence made up of nouns or verbs.

3.233. PARALLELS: The sentence 'iţai-y-eṇappaṭuva peyaroṭum viṇaiyoṭum naṭaipeṛṛiyalum' in Tol. Col. 249 seems to find a parallel in 'upasargā viṃśatirarthavācakāḥ sahētarābhyām (R. V. P. 12.6). Here one may point out that the latter deals only with upasarga, while the former deals with

Ellā-c collum paruļ-kuri-t taņa-v-ē. (Tol. Col. 155.)

pratyayas and all nipātas. But the expression 'sahētarābhyām' is so beautifully translated by Tolkāppiyanār into 'peyaroţum vinatyoţum' that it may apply to all pratyayas and nipātas.

Besides it seems to me that Tolkāppiyaṇār in giving a list of iṭai-c-col with their meanings in iṭai-y-iyal may have had for his model the first chapter of Yāska's Nirukta where Yāska deals with nipātas. The following parallels may be noted:—

- cirappoţu . . . ökārammē (which means the particle ō is used to denote superiority.) Tol. Col. 256:
 - cit . . . pūjāyām (Y. N. 33.12.) (pūjā-cirappu.)
- pirinilai . . . ökārammē (which means the particle ö is used in pirinilai.) Tol. Col. 256:
 - aha iti ca ha iti ca vinigrahārthīyāu (Y. N. 37.2.) (vinigraha—pirinilai.)
- antil ānku-v-acainslai-k-kiļavi (which means that the the words antil, ānka are used simply to make up the quantity of the verse.) Tol. Col. 267:
 - athāpi padapūraņā idamu tadu (Y. N. 37.4) (padapūraņa = acainilai-k-kiļavi.)
- 3.234. Prepositions in Tamil are very rare. That which approximates to it in early literature is kon in konnūr. Konnūr is mentioned by the author of the Pirayōkavivēkam as a compound having the nipāta kon as the first member. It may be said to be similar in form to upagrāmam in Sanskrit. In the later periods the nouns like kai in iraiyiliyāka-k-kai-k-kontu (S. I. I. iii, i, 44.6), puram in puran-kotuttān are considered as prepositions. (c. f. P. V. 45, comm.)

 ^{&#}x27;Konnūr' ena avviyaya-pūrva-patam-āy vanta avviyayīpāvam-ākiya muņ-moli-y-iţai-c-col varum. (P.V. 23 comm.)

3.24. URI-C-COL.

 3.241. DEFINITION: Tolkāppiyanār mentions in the sūtra

Uri-c-cor kiļavi virikkun kālai
Icai-y-iņun kurippiņum panpiņun töņri-p
Peyariņum viņaiyiņu mey-taļu māri
Oru-cor pala-porut k-urimai töņriņum
Pala-col l-oruporut k-urimai töņriņum
Payilāta varrai-p payiņravai cārtti-t
Tatta marapir ceņru-nilai marunkiņ
E-c-col l-dyiņum poruļ vēru-kiļattal, (Tol. Col. 297.)

that uri-c-col in its detailed significance denotes icai, kurippù and panpù. Its form undergoes modification in nouns and verbs. It may have many meanings or it may have the same meaning as others of its kind and it is to be explained in literature by means of words ordinarily current in the world.

All the commentators of the Tolkappiyam mistake that this sutra defines uri-c-col. Cenavaraiyar feeling that the statement that it has many meanings, etc.' is out of place in the sutra dealing with definition, says that though the author states that it is used in nouns and verbs with its form modified, etc., it should be defined as that which denotes icai, kurippii and panpii.\(\text{1}\)
Teyvaccilaiyar says that, since Tolkappiyanar has mentioned uri-c-col as kurai-c-cor-kilavi in Eluttatikaram, it is identical with dhātu in Sanskrit.\(\text{2}\)

Mey-taţu-māṛalum oru-cor pala-poruţ-kuri-mai-y-um, pala-col oru-poruţ-kurimaiyum uri-c-corku unmaiyān ötinārēnum, uri-c-corku ilakkanam-āvatu icai kurippu-p panpennum poruţkuriyavāy varutalēyām. (Tol. Col. 297, Cēnā.)

Eļuttatikārattuļ itaņai kurai-c-cor-kiļavi eņrū ōtiņamaiyāl, vaṭanūl-āciriyar tātū eṇrū kuri-y-iṭṭa corkalē ivai-y-eṇrū koļļappaṭum. (Tol. col. 292, Teyva.)

The author of the Nēminātam summarises Tol. Col. 297 in N. N. Col. 56. The author of the Naṇṇūl defines that uri-c-col is that which is exclusively used in poetry, which cannot be separated from nouns and verbs and which denotes one kuṇam or quality or many qualities. The author of the llakkaṇavilakkam reproduces the idea contained in Tol. Col. 297 with the modification that it is used either as viṇai-p-pōli (verb in imitation) and peyar-p-pōli (noun in imitation) or as the base of nouns or verbs and mentions in his commentary on the same that karuppū, civappū are peyar-p-pōli and uru, tava are viṇai-p-pōli in the same way as Cēṇāvaraiyar has done under Tol. Col. 297. Besides, he states that there are some Tamil grammarians who hold that uri-c-col is mostly found in poetry.

It seems to me that Tol. Col. 297 does not deal with the definition of uri-c-col. If it deals with it, all the lines except the first two are out of place, as is suggested by Cēṇāvaraiyar. Its definition is suggested by the name uri-c-col. Uri-c-col does not mean the word belonging to only poetry as Naṇṇūlār thinks, nor the word denoting quality belonging to objects as Cēṇāvaraiyar and others think. It means the word denoting the independent part of a noun or verb; for the word urimai means right and hence independence. Its nature in form is clearly expressed in the sūtra—

Eluttu-p-pirin ticaitta l-ivaniyal p-inrē. (Tol. Col. 395.) which may be translated thus:—' It is not in its nature capable of being further analysed'. This and the word kurai-c-cor-kilavi mentioned in the last but one sūtra of Eluttatikūram clearly suggest that uri-c-col is the root of nouns or verbs. It cannot be taken to be identical with Sanskrit dhātu as mentioned by Teyvaccilaiyār since dhātu is, according to the Sanskrit Grammarians, a verbal root and since Tolkāppiyanār has not suggested anywhere in his work that all nouns are derived from verbal roots. Teyvaccilaiyār seems to have said so thinking that Tol-

Pal-vakai-p panpum pakar-peya r-āki
 Oru-kuņam pala-kuņan taļuvi-p peyar-viņai
 Oruvā ceyyutku uriyaņa uri-c-col.

kāppiyaṇār follows the theory of Śākaṭāyana and Nāiruktas that all nouns are derived from verbal roots.\(^1\) But it seems to me that he follows the theory of Gārgya and another section of Sanskrit grammarians who hold that it is not necessary that all nouns should have been derived from verbal roots.\(^2\) The chief reason for the latter view is that neither Tolkāppiyaṇār nor the later grammarians have attempted to derive all nouns from verbal roots. Hence uri-c-col may be taken as the nominal or verbal root

3.242. NATURE OF URI-C-COL: If so, what is the purpose served by Tol. Col. 297? I may say that it explains it. The part 'icaiyinum kurippinum panpinum tōnri' means 'used to denote icai (sound) kurippii (feeling) and panpii (jāti—genus guṇa—quality or kriyā'—action'). The part 'orucol palaporuț kurimai tōnrinum' means 'though the same root can have different meanings'. The part 'palacol oruporuț kurimai tōnrinum' means 'though different roots are used in the same sense'. The part 'payilātavarrai payinravai cārtti . . . kiļattal' means 'one should explain the meaning of the root which is not current by one which is current'.

3.243. URI-Y-IYAL IN TOLKĀPPIYAM AND YĀSKA'S NIRUKTA: A close examination of the first sūtra in this section (uri-y-vyal) and those that follow, and the second, third and fourth chapters of Yāska's Nirukta shows that Tolkāppiyanār may have had Nirukta for his model. The portion 'orucol palaporuţ kurimai tōnrinum' has a parallel in 'ēkārtham anēkaśabdam ityētaduktam (Y. N. 265.1).' The portion 'palacol oruporuţ kurimai tōnrinum' has a parallel in 'atha yānyanēkārthāni ēka-śabdāni tānyatō anukramiṣyāmaḥ (Y. N. 266.2)'. The expression 'payilātavaṛṛai' has a parallel in 'anavagatasaṃskārān ca nigamān (Y. N. 266.3). The expression 'veļippaṭu collē' has a parallel in 'samvijāātāni tāni' in the sentence 'tadyatra

Tatra nāmāni ākhyātajānīti Sākaṭāyanō nairukta-samayaś ca. (Y.N. 56, 2.)

Na sarvāņi ity ēva gārgyō vāiyākaraņānāñ cāikē.

svarasamskārāu samarthāu prādešikena guņena anvitāu syātām samvijāātāni tāni ' (Y. N. 56.4).

The list of uri-c-col given by Tolkāppiyaṇār may be divided into that which deals with verbal roots and that which deals with nominal roots. For instance, the words vārtal, pōkal, tīrttal etc., in Tol. Col. 317 & 318 denotes only the verbal roots vār, pō, tīr exactly in the same way as āvayati, bhavatī, vēti, etc. given in Y.N. page 195, rēļatē, hēļatē, etc., in page 197 of the same, etc. The words viļumam, cīrmai, karuvi mentioned in Tol. Col. 353 and 354 are similar to mahat, budhnah, etc. given in Y.N. page 213. But at the same time, it should be borne in mind that Tolkāppiyaṇār does not seem to have incorporated in Tamil grammar the theory of the Nāiruktas that all nouns are derived from verbal roots.

It may be interesting to note that the Tamil word uru found in the sutra 'uru tava nani . . mikuti ceyyum perula' (Tol. Col. 299) and the Sanskrit word uru in 'uru tuvi puru . . . iti dvādaša bahunāmāni (Y.N. 212.1) both head the list of words having the sense 'much'. The Tamil grammarians have not been able to satisfactorily explain the derivation of the Tamil 'uru' and the Tamil 'tava' in the sense of 'much'. But a consideration of the Nirukta parallel indicated above (uru tuvi . .) might help any one in equating the Tamil uru and tava in the sense of 'much' with Sanskrit uru and tuvi in the same sense, and in appreciating the correspondence between the two sets of words both on the phonological and semantic sides. The way in which Tolkappiyanar frames a list of words whose derivation cannot be ascertained-such as nani, kați-is very similar to the manner in which Yaska frames a list of asamvijnata words like jaha, nidha, etc. in pp. 267 and 269 of the Nirukta.

Besides, Tolkappiyanar first gives the list of roots which have the same meaning and then only roots which have different meanings. In Nirukta too, list of words having the same meaning is given in the second and third chapters and the list of those having different meanings is given in the fourth and fifth chapters. On considering the above points, it may be clear that Tol. Col. 294 does not deal with the definition of Uri-c-col. The statement of Nannūlār that it is used only in poetry was made on account of the mistaken notion that only the words like uru, tava, nani, etc. whose derivation is believed to be obscure are uri-c-col. He seems to have failed to note the sūtra 'veļippaṭu collē kiļatlal vēnṭā, veļippaṭa vārā uricconmēṇa' (Tol. Col. 298) which means that the uri-c-col which are in use are not mentioned here and only those which are not in use, are mentioned.

I really wonder how Cēṇāvaraiyar and the author of the Ilakkaṇaviļakkam countenance the opinion of Naṇṇūlār that uri-c-col is found only in poetry as an alternative theory. The reason for this, it seems to me, is that they may have mistaken vilumam, cīrmai, etc. mentioned in Tol. Col. 353 for noun forms, since they say that karuppū, cīvappū, etc. are peyar-p-pōli while such forms evidently represent nominal roots as explained above.

From the above arguments one can very well see that it would not be correct to say that all words are uri-c-col, as the author of the Pirayōkavivēkam has said in one place (P. V. 18, comm. p. 31.) or to include it in itai-c-col as the same grammarian has done in another place (P. V. 42, comm.); nor would it be correct to define uri-c-col as 'one of a few indeclinables which always have the force of adjective or adverb³.

^{1.} T. L. p. 441.

4. WORD-FORMATION AND COMPOUNDS.

4-1. WORD-FORMATION: It seems to me that according to Tolkāppiyaṇār that words, generally nouns and verbs, are formed by suffixing one or more iṭai-c-col to uri-c-col, as kariyaṇ, kariyaḥ, etc. or by suffixing iṭai-c-col to nouns or verbs as valaiyaṇ, uṇṇēṇai, etc.

The author of the Vīracoliyam, in imitation of Panini's grammar, names the suffixes that are added to words as taddhita and gives their list in V. Tat. 1, 4 and 5. They are an, iyan, īņaņ, ēyaņ, etc.; mai, am, pu, tu, vu, kam, etc.; and acci, ātti, ani, atti, al, al, i, etc. The examples given by the commentator for the same are valaiyan, vētiyan, kulīnan, vainatēyan, etc.; valimai, nilam, melippii, valitii, melivu, kurukkam, etc.; paraicci, vellätti, pärppani, vannätti, etc. Here an unnecessary mixing-up of Sanskrit taddhita pratyayas and Tamil pratyayas has been done; for instance, ina in kulina and eya in vainateya are Sanskrit pratyayas; the pratyayas given in V. Tat. 4 are strictly speaking krt pratyayas; but the author of the Viracoliyam seems to take it that valimai, kurukkam, etc. are formed from the nouns vali, kuru, etc., which, in his opinion, are formed from the roots val, kur, etc. But we do not find such verbal forms as val and kur. As regards the third list the same confusion is made. The Sanskrit word brāhmanastrī, if Tamilised, becomes pārppanatti and parppanacci. Hence acci and atti are not, strictly speaking, suffixes. The word vannātti is evidently formed from vannān + attu (cāriyai) + i, where the n of vannān is dropped. Hence all the suffixes noted in V. Tat. 5 could be brought under i, al and al. Similarly he makes mention of krt pratyayas in V. Tat. 3 and 4.

He forms the nominative case of nouns by adding cu and then dropping it, in direct imitation of Pāṇini's grammar.

Nannūlār takes the forms naṭa, vā, etc. as the roots like the author of the Viracöliyam; but does not agree that cemmai, cirumai, etc. are derived from verbs, but says that they are pakāppatam or indivisible words.

According to him, the case-forms of nouns are formed by adding case-suffixes to nouns or participial nouns, e.g. kaṇṇaṇai, pōṇēṇai; cāriyai may be inserted before the case-suffix; the verbal forms are formed by adding the tense sign followed by the personal terminations to the roots in general.

All the later grammarians follow Nannülär² except the author of the Pirayökavivěkam, who follows the author of the Viracöliyam. The parallelism between V. Tat. 2 and 3 and P. V. 31 and 32 is striking. He divides tattitan into three as cāmāniyatattitan, avviyatattitan, and pāvatattitan³, and enumerates them in P. V. 30 to 34. The difference between the author of the Vīracöliyam and that of the Pirayökavivěkam is that the latter does not mix the Tamil suffixes with Sanskrit suffixes though he imports the Sanskritic technical terms.

4.2. COMPOUNDS: 4.21. MEANING OF THE WORD 'TOKAI': The word that is chosen by Tolkāppiyanār to denote compounds is tokai. The word tokai is derived from the root 'toku' which means to elide and also to join together. Cēnā-

(V. Tāt. 1.)

2. Nața-vă mați-ci vițu-kū vē-vai
No-p-pō vau-v-uri ñun-porun tirun-tin
Tēy-pār celvav vāl-kē ļ-a:.kenrū
Innavai mutala v-ellā viņaiyun
Terinilai viņaiyin mutanilai y-ākum. (I. V. 43.)
Nața, vă, un, tin ittoṭakkattana viņai-p-pakā-p-patam. (ibid. 40, comm.)

3. Cāmā niyam-av viyam-pāva mūnrena-t tattitan-vērū (P. V. 30.)

Manniya-cīr-vaţa nūlir-cara-paca v-enru-vantū
 Tunniya-tātu-k kaļin-pōli-pōla-t toku-tamilkkum
 Panniya-tātu-k kaļai-p-paṭaittu-k-koļka munnilaiyin
 Unniya-v-ēva l-orumai-c-cor-pōnrula kirkokkavē.

varaiyar1 mentions that there are two schools of interpretation of the word tokai; one adopts the first meaning of the root toku and thinks that tokai is that where the case-suffixes, the particle um, the particles of comparison, the ending of panpu-p-peyar and the ending of verbs are dropped and the other adopts the second meaning and thinks that tokai is that in which two or more words are joined together. He belongs to the latter school and condemns the former school for the following two reasons:-(1) According to their interpretation even the expressions ceytan porul and iruntan mațattu would become tokai since the casesuffixes ai and han have been respectively dropped after the words porul and matattu. (2) Even those who hold the former theory cannot but accept the unitary nature of a compound. These two reasons cannot stand if tokai is taken to be that in which two or more words are joined together by dropping casesuffixes, etc. Besides, Tolkappiyanar himself describes the unitary nature of compounds in the sutra

Ellā-t tokai-y-n m-oru-con naţaiya. (Tol. Col. 420.) and dropping of case-suffixes, etc., in the sūtra

Paṇpù-toka varūuṅ kiļavi y-āṇựm Ummai tokka peyar-vayi ṇ-āṇum Vērrumai tokka peyar-vayi ṇ-āṇum Iṛru-niṇ riyalu m-aṇmoḷi-t tokai-y-ē. (Tol. Col. 418.)

where he deals with anmolittokai or bahuvrihi compound. Hence the choice of the word 'tokai' shows the genius of Tol-kāppiyaṇār. It may be very interesting to note here that the Sanskrit name 'samāsa' also, while it explicitly refers to composition, also implicitly conveys the idea of curtailment as may be seen from the contrast between the Sanskrit words vyāsa and samāsa. The interpretation of the word tokai by Cēṇāvaraiyar and Teyvaccilaiyār is possibly based upon the obvious meaning

Vērrumai-y-urupum uvama-v-urupum um-m-aiyum viņaic-col-l-īrum paņpu-c-col-l-īrun tokutalir rokai-y-āyiņa v-enpārum, a-v-v-a-p-poruņmēl iraņtum polavum-ākiya corkaļ piļavu-patātu orrumai-p-pata-t tam-m-uļ-ivaitalir rokai-y-āyiņa v-enpārum-ena irutirattār āciriyar. (Tol. Col. 412, Cēnā.)

of the word samāsa (composition). Though Teyvaccilaiyār gives this interpretation of tokai under Tol. Col. 412, he takes into consideration the other meaning also in the word tokku in paṇpu toka . . . (Tol. Col. 418).

The author of the Viracoliyam, though he takes tokai to correspond to the term samāsa, (composition) clearly mentions the elision of case-suffixes, etc. in the former member of the compound (V. T. 1). The author of the Pirayokavivēkam, on the other hand, says that he agrees with Cēṇāvaraiyar and repeats the reasons assigned by him (P. V. 19, comm. p. 34).

4.22. ENUMERATION OF COMPOUNDS AND THEIR NATURE.—Tolkāppiyanār classifies compounds under heads1:--Vērrumai-t-tokai, uvamai-t-tokai, viņai-t-tokai, pan pu-ttokai, ummai-t-tokai and anmoli-t-tokai. Vērrumaittokai2 is that in which the members which form the compound stand in case-relation to each other as por-kutam (gold-pot). It corresponds to tatpuruşa in Sanskrit. Uvamai-t-tokai3 is that in which one member is compared to another as pon-meni (gold-appearance). It corresponds to upamāna-pūrvapada-karma-dhāraya. Vinai-t-tokai4 is that in which the first member is a relative participle denoting time and the second member is the noun which it qualifies as kol-yāṇai (elephant that kills, killed or will It corresponds to a part of viśesana-pūrvapada-karmadhāraya. Panţu-t-t-tokai5 is that in which the first member is generally a quality denoting colour, shape, extent, taste etc., and

1.	Vērrumai-t tokai-y-ē y-uvama-t tokai-y	j-ë	
	Vinai-y-in rokai-y-ë panpin rokai-y-ë		
	Ummai-t tokai-y-ë y-aymoli-t tokai-y-cyrù		
	A-v-v-ā r-enpa tokai-moļi nilai-y-ē.	(Tol. Col. 412.)	

Vērrumai-t tokai-y-ē vērrumai y-iyala, (ibid. 413.)

Uvama-t tokai-y-ē y-uvama v-iyala. (ibid. 414.)

^{4.} Viņai-y-iņ rokuti kāla-t t-iyalum. (ibid. 415..)

^{5.} Vannattin vațivi n-alavir cuvai-y-in-enru
Anna piravu m-atan-kuna nutali
Inna t-itu-v-ena varău m-iyarkai
Enna kilaviyum panpin rokai-y-ê. (ibid. 416.)

the second a noun which has that quality as karuń-kutirai (black horse). This also corresponds to a part of viśēṣaṇa-pūrvapada-karmadhāraya. Ummai-t-tokai¹ is that in which each has two or more members, the members being connected with one another by 'and' and denoting persons, measures, numbers, weights etc., as puli-viṛ-keṇṭai (tiger, bow and keṇṭai fish) etc. It corresponds to dvandva in Sanskrit. Anmoli-t-tokai² is the possessive compound, the members of which may stand to each other in any of the three relations—quality-noun relation, conjunctive relation, and case-relation. It corresponds to bahuvrīhi in Sanskrit.

It may be noted here that the number of compounds in Tamil agree with that of primary compounds in Sanskrit and the names given to them in Tamil are more suggestive of their function than those in Sanskrit. These compounds are treated in syntax as though they are single words,³

The above classification of Tolkäppiyanär is fairly exhaustive; but such compounds as karu-niyam, cârai-p-pāmpū, where both the members are either qualities or names which denote the genus and species of the same object, are not taken into account; but Cēṇāvaraiyar explains in his commentary on the same sūtra that they too are paṇpū-l-tokai, on the strength of the expression eṇṇa-kiļaviyum, which means 'similar words', in the sūtra.

All the later grammarians, except the authors of the Viracoliyam and the Pirayokavivekam, i. e., the authors of the Neminatam, the Nannul, the Ilakkanavilakkam and the Ilakkanakkottu agree, as regards the classification of compounds, with

1. Iru-peyar pala-peya r-alavin peyarē	
En-n-iyar peyarê nirai-p-peyar-k kilavi	
En-n-in peyarō t-a-v-v-aru kilaviyum	
Kanniya nilaittē y-ummai-t tokai-y-ē.	(ibid. 417.)

Paņpu toka-varūun kiļavi y-āņum Ummai tokka peyar-vayi p-āņum Vērrumai tokka peyar-vayi n-āņum Irru-niņ riyalu m-aņmoli-t tokai-y-ē.

(ibid, 418.)

(ibid. 420.)

Ellā-t tokai-y-u m-oru-con naţaiya.

Tolkāppiyaṇār. And Naṇṇūlār tries to improve upon Tolkāppiyaṇār as regards the definition of paṇpu-t-tokai¹ so that it may apply to compounds like karu-niram, cārai-p-pāmpū etc.

But the author of the Viracoliyam saw that a large number of Sanskrit compounds like aniti, anittiyam etc., were freely used in Tamil and they, along with some Tamil compounds like karu-nigam, panniru-toli, ten-kilakku, could not be directly explained with the rules on compounds stated by Tolkappiyanar. Hence he began to classify them exactly in the same way as is done in Sanskrit; tarpurutan (tatpurusa), pala-nel (bahuvrihi), kanmatarayam (karmadharaya), tuviku (dvigu), tuvantuvam (dvandva) and avviyapāva (avyayībhāva). Some may say that he might have left out avviyapāva since examples for it are very rare; it is true, but such words as yatākkiramam, the tadbhava of Skt. yathākrama, are sometimes found and they have to be explained.

The most important point to be noted in the Viracoliyam, as also in the Pirayokavivekam whose author closely follows that of the Viracoliyam with some difference here and there, is that most of the stanzas found in the chapter dealing with compounds (tokai-p-paṭalam), in both are exactly the translation of the kārikās on samāsa assigned to the authorship of Vararuci in Sanskrit. They are as follows:—

(1) Şödhā samāsāḥ sankṣēpāt ēkatrimšadvidhāḥ punaḥ | Tatrāṣṭadhā tatpuruṣaḥ saptadhā karma-dhārayaḥ || Saptadhā ca bahuvrīhiḥ dvigur-ābhāṣitō dvidhā | Dvandvašcatur-vidhō jñēyōavyayībhāvastridhā mataḥ || (Var. Kār.)

Tarpuruṭaṇ-pala ner-kaṇma tārayan tāṅkiya-cīr Nar-ruviku-t-tokai nāvār-tuvantuva nalla-teyva-c

Panpai vilakkum moli-tok kanavum
 Oru-poruţku iru-peyar vantavum kuna-t-tokai.
 (Na. 365).

^{2.} V. T. 2. 27

210 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL.

Cor-payan-māntarka ļ-avviyapāva m-itenru-tonmai Karpakam-ū-p-pakarn tūr-tokai-y-ūrun kanankulaiyē.

(V. T. 2.)

Tarpuruțan-ruvi ku-p-pala ner-karma tărayanății Urpala vänetun kat-pacun të-moli y-ontotiyay Cor-payi l-avvi yayipäva m-ënai-t tuvantan-ena-k Karpavar kūruñ camācaņ-ka ļē-tokai-k kaṭṭaḷai-y-ē.

(P. V. 20.)

(2) Tathuruşō' şţa-vidhō' bhūt prathamādi-vibhakti-nañkrtāir-bhēdāih | Sa caikavadbhāvyanēkavadbhāvīti dvidhā dviguķ || (Var. Kar.)

Eluvāy-mutal-elu vērrumaiyōtu m-eluntataiyil Valuvātanañhotet t-ān-tarpurutan vaļar-tuviku Taluvārnta-venmoli munnāy-varun tattita-p-porun-mēl Kuluvār-orumaiy-op pu-p-panmaiy-oppu-k kuri-y-irantē-(V. T. 3.)

Tar puru ța-t-tokai vērrumai y-ețțanuț cărnta nañnu-c Cor-poru l-anmai marai-y-inmai kattun tokai-t-luviku Murbata m-en-pir patan-tattitärtta mutittumelüum Parpala v-ēkavar pāvi-y-a nēkavar pāvi-y-cnrē. (P. V. 21.)

(3) Saptabhirākhyābhir-vā vikhyātō yassavāi bahuvrīhih | Dvābhyām padābhyām bahubhih padāir vā Sankhyābhidhāyyanlyabadam dvayam vā 📗 Yasyābhavatþūrvaþadē sahaśca (Var. Kar.) Digantarāla-vyatihāralakşmā Irumoli-panmoli pinmoli y-ennöt-irumoli-y-cn

Maruvum-vitiyā r-ilakkaņamarrai-c caka-mun-moli Paravun-tikantarā ļa-t-tokai-y-anna-p palanerrekai

Viriyum-ör-ēl-avai vērru-moli-p poruņ-mel-l-iyalē.

(V. T. 4.)

Irumoli pan-moli pin-moli y-ennö t-irumoli-y-en Taru-moli y-orroli tikkan tarāļañ caka-munirkum Oru-moli y-ēṇai-viti kāra-lakkaṇattöţu varum Peru-moli y-āki-veku viriyan moli-p-pē r-aţaintē.

(P. V. 24.)

(4) Kavibhissapta-vidhassyādityēvam karma-dhārayaḥ kathitaḥ |

Višēşaņam pūrva-padē višēşyam tathūbhayatrāpi višēşaņam ca

Yasyōpamānam paratas-tadādāu sambhāvanā cāpyavadhāraņā ca || (Var. Kār.)

Mun-moli-p-panpu m-iru-moli-p-panpu m-olintamainta
Pin-moli-y-oppotu mun-moli-y-oppum pinakkon-rilā
Mun-moli-nar-karut tum-mun-moli-narrunivum-cna
Nan-moli-y-ār-kanma tārayam-ārenna nāţţinarē. (V.T. 5.)
Mun-moli-p panpiru panpu vicēţiya mun-moli-tan
Mun-moli-t tulliyam pin-moli-t tulliya moy-kulalāy
Mun-moli-c campā vanai-y-ava tārana murrum-ivai
Nan-moli-p panpu-t tokai-k kanma tārayanarramilkkē.

(P. V. 22.)

Here the author of the Viracoliyam omitted the class where the noun qualified by the adjective stands as the first member of the compound (višēṣya-pūrvapadaḥ) since, perhaps, it was difficult to him to find an example for it in Tamil language; and hence he stated that kanmatārayam is of 6 kinds, instead of 7 as found in Sanskrit. But the author of the Pirayōkavivēkam has included it also and gives Toyva-p-pulavan-riruvaļļuvan as an example for it.

(5) Yatrāvyayam pūrva-padam yathā vā
Subantamāhō dvitayam subantam |
Pūrvō' pi mukhyō bahušaḥ padārthaḥ
Tathāvyayībhāvam itīrayanti||
Sa hi dvandvaścaturdhā¡syāt budhāir-iti vinišcitaḥ |
Itarētarayōgākhyaḥ samāhārāhvayas tathā.|| (Var. Kār.)

¹Muṇ-moli-y-avviyañ-cēr tokai pēr-muṇ moli-t-tokaiyē
Coṇ-moli-y-avviya pāvamaruvum tuvantuvamum
Vaṇ-moli-y-āṃ-ita rētaram-vāynta camā-kāram-ām
Naṇ-moli-y-āṇ-urait tārkaļ-camāca naru-nutalē. (V. T. 6.)

He has not mentioned that class of avyayibhāva where the members are nouns, as madhyē'gāram since such words have not been taken into Tamil language.

212 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

Mun-moli-p për-c-co l-itai-c-co l-iranțu murani-nirkum Tan moli y-avvi yayīpāva m-ummai-c cakārattilē In-moli-t tontan 1 camākārāt tötita rētaramām An-moli-t törramuñ camuccayat tötu-man väcayamē.

(P. V. 23.)

(6) Tatpuruşö' aşţa-vidhö' bhūt..... Uttara-pada-janitärthah präyö mukhyah......dviguh Asyāpi paņģitair-antar-bhāvas tatpurusē matah ||karmadhärayah kathitah | Tatpuruşāntarbhāvāt tadvad Prādhānyam īritam cāsya || Prādhānyam prāyašē' smin Ubhayos syat padarthayoh | Sa hi dvandvah..... Tar buru tan-ruvi ku-k-karma tarayan ramutanmai Pir pata m-ām-clu vāy-ā m-orūu-t-tokai pen-n-anankē Mur pata m-avvi yayi pava m-oppu-murai piraluñ Cor-patan tokkavai y-ellä mutanmat luvantanukkë.

(P. V. 25.)

The statement 'avviyayi pavamoppu-murai piralum' which means that the relative importance of the first or second member in avvayībhāva and upamitasamāsa will change, is made on the strength of the words prayah and bahusah in uttara-padajanitarthah prayo mukhyah and pürvö'pi mukhyo bahusah badarthah respectively. The author of the Viracoliyam, having dealt with this classification of compounds in 5 stanzas, mentions also the classification made by Tolkappiyanar as the opinion of a class of Tamilians.

The only point of difference between these two kinds of classification is only with respect to avyayībhāva and nañtatpurusa, since other tatpurusas, dvandva and bahuvrihi are identically the same as vērrumaittokai, ummaittokai and anmolittokai, though with different names, and karmadharaya and dvigu may some-

cf. Bhattoji Dikṣit's vṛtti on 'cārthē dvandvaḥ'— *samuccaya-anvācaya-itarētarayōga-samāhārāh cārthāh.

how or other be brought under uvamattokai, viņaittokai and paņputtokai.

- 4.23. Here I want to deal further with the difference of opinion among the commentators of Tolkappiyam and Nannular regarding vinai-t-tokai and panpu-t-tokai and whether the expression nilah katantan is a tokai or not.
- 4.231. As regards viņaittokai, Ilampūraņar, Teyvaccuaiyār and Naccinarkkiniyar think, that when a present, past, or future, participle like kollum or konra is compounded with a noun like yānai, the participial suffix is dropped and they become kol-yāṇai. Hence the word kol-yayai means 'elephant that kills, that killed or that will kill'. But Cenavaraiyar is of opinion that kol-yanai is compounded of the root kol with yanai and it cannot be dissolved into konra yanai, kollukinra or kollum yanai. The interpretation of the latter seems to be unsound, since Tolkappiyanar in his sutra says that vinailtokai shows time.1 The reasons adduced by him in support of his statement do not seem to be sound. He has done so, since perhaps he took the expressions like kol-yāṇai as a case of nilyasamāsa like the word kumbhakāra mentioned by Dharmakirti in Vol. I, p. 181 of his Rūpāvatāra. But it seems to me that it is against the views of Tolkāppivanār. Nannūlār agrees with Hampūranar, while the author of the Ilakkanavilakkam agrees with Cenāvaraiyar and repeats his arguments. (I. V. 338, Comm.)
- 4.232. As regards panpu-t-tokai, Cēṇāvaraiyar thinks that the words like karunkutirai cannot be dissolved into kariyatū ākiya kutirai in the same way as in viņai-t-tokai perhaps for the same reason. This too is against the views of Tolkāppiyaṇār since, in the sūtra, he says 'iṇṇatū itu eṇa' (Tol. Col. 416). Naṇṇūlār seems to think that karumai+kutirai becomes karun-kutirai,² while Tolkāppiyaṇār thinks that kariyatū+kutirai becomes so. Naṇṇūlār's view does not seem to be sound since the

Vinaiyin rokuti kālat t-iyalum. (Tol. Col. 415.)

Panpai vilakkum moli-tok kanavum
 Oru-poruţku irupeyar vantavum kuna-t-tokai. (Na. 365.)

expression 'karumai ākiya kutirai' cannot convey any sense since karumai and kutirai cannot be appositional, karumai denoting quality and kutirai denoting object. The author of the Ilakkaņa-viļakkam agrees with Cēṇāvaraiyar (I. V. 339, Comm.).

4.233. IS 'NILAN KAŢANTĀŊ' WHICH MEANS 'HE CROSSED THE GROUND', A COMPOUND OR NOT? All commentators of Tolkāppiyam, except Cēṇāvaraiyar and his followers think that nilan kaṭantāṇ, when it means "he crossed the ground," is not a compound, but a sentence consisting of two words nilam and kaṭantāṇ where nilam is the object of the verb kaṭantāṇ and it has its suffix dropped according to Tol. Col. 103. When it means "one who has crossed the ground," evidently it is a compound. But Cēṇāvaraiyar is very obstinate in considering it a compound. The reason he adduces in support of his opinion is that in Tol. E. 133, Tolkāppiyaṇār has stated that a noun which has its case-suffix dropped is combined with the following verb so as to form a compound. Hampūraṇar gives a different interpretation to the same. The lines under consideration are

Peyarum tolilum pirintorunku icaippa Vērrumai y-urupu nilaiperu valiyun Tõrram vēntā-t tokuti-k kannum...

The literal translation of these is as follows:—Noun and verb used separately or together, either with the case suffix of the noun expressed or dropped. Ilampūraņar interprets these lines thus:—Peyarum tolilum vērrumai yurupu nilaiperu valiyum, torram vēņtāt tokutik kaņņum pirinticaippa, and peyarum tolilum verrumai yurupu nilai peru valiyum torram veņtāt tokutik kaņņum orunkicaippa, which may be translated thus:—When a noun with, or without, a case-suffix is followed by a verb and is treated as a separate word and when a noun with, or without, a case-

Nīlan-kaṭantān, kungattiruntān ena-p-peyarum viņaiyun tokkana oru-conntrmai-y-ila-v-ākalin tokai-y-enappaṭā v-enpārum-uļar...vēgrumai-y-urupit roka-p-peyarun tolilum orunkicaittal āciriyar nērntār-ākalin, avai tokai-y-ēnavē paṭum. (Tol. Col. 420, Cēnā.)

suffix is followed by a verbal noun and is treated as a part of a compound of which the verbal noun forms the second part—According to his interpretation, nilattai-k kaṭantāṇ and nilaṅ kaṭantāṇ are each two separate words when kaṭantāṇ is a finite verb, and nilattai-k-kaṭantāṇ and nilaṅ-kaṭantāṇ are COMPOUND WORDS when kaṭantāṇ is a participial noun.

Cēṇāvaraiyar interprets the same sūtra thus:—peyarum toļihum vērrumai y-urupu nīlai peru vaļiyum pirinticaippa, peyarum toļihum tōrram vēṇṭā-t tokuti-k kaṇṇum orunkicaippa, which may be translated thus:—when a noun with a case-suffix is separate from the verb which it follows, and when without case-suffix, it is treated as a part of the compound—(i.e.) He takes 'pirintù' with the second line of the sūtra and 'orunkù' with the third line unlike Iļampūraṇar who takes both the second and third lines with both pirintù and orunkù. Besides, Cēṇāvaraiyar seems to think that the word tokuti in the third line means compound, since the same word in the sūtra 'Viṇai-y-in rokuti kālat tiyalum' (Tol. Col. 415) has that meaning. But the author has not used that word in that sense alone in the whole of his work. For he has used also in the sense of number according to Cēṇāvaraiyar and collection according to Ilampūraṇar in the sūtra,

Inaittena arinta cinai-mutar kilavikku
Vinai-p-patu tokuti-y-in-ummai vēntum (Tol. Col. 33).

It is a wonder to me why Cēṇāvaraiyar says so in spite of the fact that he is a sound Sanskrit scholar. What is the use of taking nilan kaṭantāṇ, yāru kaṭantāṇ, ūrkaṭantāṇ, etc., to be compounds when one can very easily take them as separate words?

From the points mentioned above, it may be clear that the interpretation of *tokai* as ellipsis mentioned by Dr. Pope in page xvii of the Introduction in Pope's edition of Tirukkural is not sound.

216 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

5. SYNTAX.

- 5. 1. INTRODUCTION: From the arrangement of the sections in Collatikaram, Tolkappiyanar seems to have recognised that the unit of speech is a sentence. In the first section, kilaviyākkam, he says in the first eleven sūtras that the ending of the predicate must agree in gender, number and person with that indicated by the subject, and in the succeeding sūtras, he deals with the order of words in a sentence, the use of particular words in a context, etc. In the second section, the case-suffixes and their function are dealt with, since the former are necessarily found after nouns in a sentence. In the third section is mentioned the overlapping of case-functions and in the fourth, the vocative case. It is only at the beginning of the fifth section, peyarival, Tolkappiyanar defines col or word which forms a part of a sentence and classifies it primarily into two, noun and verb, and secondarily into four-noun, verb, itaiccol and uriccol. remaining portion of the fifth section, he deals with nouns; the sixth, seventh and eighth sections respectively deal with verbs, itaiccol and uriccol and the ninth and last, with miscellaneous topics like compunds, etc.
- 5. 2. ORDER OF WORDS: The normal order of words in a Tamil sentence is this:- The subject begins the sentence and the predicate ends it. (e.g.) val valantara marubbattana (The sword was stained after giving victory) (P. N. 4. 1); the predicate may be used at the beginning of the sentence when it is emphasised. (e.g.) kantanen karpinukkaniyai-k-kankalāl (saw I with eyes the ornament of chastity) (Kampar, C. Tiruvati, 58.) As regards the cases, the sixth case must invariably precede the noun which it qualifies, (e.g.) ālai-vāy-k-karumpin tēnum (the sweet boiled juice of the sugarcane at the mill), (Kampar. B. 469,) the second case generally precedes the verb, but the third and the fourth cases also intervene between them. (e.g.) talaiyai vananki (bowing the head) (Cilap. 490, 33); itamulai kaiyāl tiruki (twirling the left breast with hand) (Cilap. 421. 43); vanta nampiyai muntai . . . nāņmarai munikkuk kāţţi (having shown his brother to the sage learned

in the four vedas) (Kampar. B. 233, 17). When certain things are enumerated first and their total number is indicated by an enumerative word, such a word should be followed by um. (e.g.) muracu-mulanku tāṇai mūvarun kūṭi, (all the three having assembled with their armies beating drums) (Pattu. 61. 54). The past, present, and future, participle invariably precede the noun which they qualify. (e. g.) nuti-malunkiya venköttän (with the white tusk whose end was blunted) (P. N. 4. 11). The nouns in apposition which denote the titles of persons generally precede the name of the person. (e.g.) Teyrappulavan Tiruvalluran.1 nouns and pronouns are used in the same sentence denoting the same person, the pronoun is generally used after the noun. (e.g.) Căttan avan vantăn, but the order may be inverted in poetry. (e.g.) avan . . . cēntan pēr vāliti (having blessed Cēntan). (Tol. Col. 32, Cēṇā.). OR TURNER

5. 3. NUMBER: Singular nouns with a collective sense take the singular verb .- (e.g.) vaiyātu ulakam (the world will not despise) (K. 117); plural forms are sometimes used as honorific singulars.-(e.g.) yam ēttukam palavē (I praise in many ways) (P. N. 10. 13); plural forms of verbs are sometimes used along with the singular nouns and vice versa .- (e.g.) arañ ceylimô aruļveyyōy (P. N. 145, 7), yāvō yām kānku (Ka. T. Vol. 2, 497. 22). Sometimes the plural forms of verbs are mixed with the singular forms. (e.g.) unkum entai nin kānku vanticin (P. N. 125.4). Sometimes two or more singular nouns connected by the particle um take a singular verb after them. (e.g.) mātavar nönpum majavär karpum kävalan käval inrå (the celebacy and the chastity of holy women is not under guard) (E. M. 252, 208 and 209). Oruvar is the common form to denote either one man or one woman. (e.g.) oruvarai-y-oruvar toțarntăr (one followed another) (Kampar, C. Kińkarar, 25). In case when one is not able to ascertain whether the person standing before him is a male or a female, the plural verb should be used. (e.g.) anmakan kollő pentátti kollő astő tönruvár (is it man or woman that

Cirappi n-ākiya peyar-nilai-k kiļavikkum Iyar-peyar-k kiļavi murpaţa-k kiļavār. (Tol. Col. 41.)

appears there). The plural interrogative pronoun yār is used after singular nouns if the former is used as a logical predicate. (e.g.) ivan yār enkuvaiyāyin (if you ask who this man is) (P. N. 13.1). Sometimes plural nouns are in apposition with singular nouns. (e.g.) ēval iļaiyar tāy vayiru karippa (Tol. Col. 461, Cēṇā.)

- 5. 4. TINAI: Sometimes aarinai nouns are used as uyartinai nouns and vice versa out of affection (e.g.) en tantai vantan (with reference to a calf), en ānai vantatu (with reference to a son). Similarly aarinai nouns are used as uyartinai and vice versa to denote superiority. (e.g.) centār-p-pacunkiļiyār (C. C. 1036.), mannan uyirttē malar talai-y-ulakam (P. N. 186. 2).
- 5. 5. CONCORD: The finite verb agrees with its subject in gender, number and person as is generally found in Sanskrit. If two or more subjects of different persons are used, the plural verb of the first person is used if the subjects are of the first person, and either of the second or third persons or both, as yānum nīyum pāṇām, yānum avanum pāṇām or yānum, nīyum avanum pāṇām, and the plural verb of the second person is used if the subjects are of the second and third persons, as nīyum avanum pāṇār. In respect of these two points there is similarity between Sanskrit and Tamil. If the subject is made up of a uyartiṇai noun and an aāriṇai noun, the verb that follows is in uyartiṇai. (e.g.) Poṇṇaṇum kutiraiyum vantārhaļ (Poṇṇaṇ and his horse came) (Colloq.).
- 5. 6. PRONOUNS: Sometimes the word ivan is used to denote the first person singular. (e.g.) kānkivan kaļumpiņatiṭumpai (P. N. 173.2). This is probably due to the desire of the speaker to address himself in the third person. The form ivan is used, but not avan, since he is the nearest third person to himself.

Pān-mayak kurra v-aiya-k kiļavi
Tān-ari poruļ-vayir paņmai kūral. (Tol. Col. 23.)

If yāvan is abbreviated into yān as yāvar into yār, its form would have been the same as the singular of the first personal pronoun yān and hence yār may have been used in all genders and numbers to avoid confusion,

^{3.} Cf. M. V. G. p. 290, S. 3.

This is perhaps the reason why inki is used in the sense of ennitattil in Jaffna. Similar usage is found in the Cilappatikāram. (e.g.) Parakati-y-ilakkum panpu inku illai (Cilap. 395, 85).

The reflexive pronouns tan, tam and tankal are used in place of second person singular, tankal when the person spoken to is a very great man, tām when he is great, and tān when he is almost equal to the speaker in status. It is a peculiarity in colloquial speech that they are followed by a verb in the neuter singular. (e.g.) tānkaļ eppētu vantatu; tām eppētu vantatu; tān eppētu vantatū. Tām and tānkaļ are also followed by second person plurals of the form wantir and wantirkal respectively. Sometimes nam is used instead of the second person honorific singular, (e.g.) nammai orukāl kāttivantāl (P. T. 92, 1), nerunal națantavarō năm (Kampar. Āra. 238, 119). Such a usage is found in colloquial speech also. Similarly atu is also used in colloquial speech. (e.g.) atu enna collukiratu. Besides it may be interesting to note that the word invitattil which is the seventh case of ivvitam is used in the same sense. (e.g.) ivvitattil evvaru ninaikkingatis (how do you think?). The form evan is used as a logical predicate after a neuter singular subject. (e. g.) iccorhu-pporul evan1 (what is the meaning of this word ?)

5. 7. CASES AND CASE-SUFFIXES: The cases from the first to the eighth are generally used in Tamil as in Sanskrit conveying the same sense, i.e., the first case denoting the subject, the second the object,² the third the instrument, object in association or the doer, the fourth the recipient, the fifth the limit, comparison and cause, the sixth the ownership, and the seventh the time and the place of action. But we have many cases where one case form is used for another, i. e., where functional syncretism plays its part.

Yāteva v-envu m-āyiru kiļavi-y-um Ariyā-p poruļ-vayir ceriya-t tōvrum. (Tol. Col. 31.)

Following point may be noted here. Tolkāppiyaŋār does not state in Tol. Col. 71 that the second case denotes the object, but says that it is used with verbs. Since he says in Tol. Col. 112 that the subject, object, instrument, etc., are necessary for an action

220 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

The third, the fourth, the fifth, and the seventh, case are sometimes used in place of the second. (e.g.) vāṇāl nōkki vālum¹; ivaţku-k-kollum ıvvaṇi²; paliyin añcum³; aracarkaţ cārntān, kōţţinkaţ kuraittān, etc.4

The fourth and fifth cases are sometimes used in place of the third. (e.g.) avarku-c-ceyya-t-takum ikkāriyam⁵; vaņikattiņ āyināņ⁶, ampiņ āṭṭutum (Kampar. B. 28, 3). The sixth case is

to be produced and he directly mentions the meanings of all the cases other than the second in the sūtras dealing with the other cases and the object is left out, we are made to infer that the second case denotes the object. The authors of the Neminātam and the Nannūl also have not definitely stated it. (N. N. Col. 17 and Na. 296.) It is the outhor of the Ilakkanaviļakkam who has mentioned it. (I. V. 199.)

- Iranţan marunki nākka nākkam-a-v V-iranţan marunki n-ētu-v-u m-ākum. (Tol. Col. 93.)
- Itana titu-v-ir rennun kilaviyum Atanai-k kollum porul-vayi n-ānum. (ibid. 110.)
- Acca-k kilavik k-aintu m-irantum
 Ecca m-ilavē poruļ-vayi n-āna. (ibid. 100.)
- Karuma m-allā-c cārpen kiļavikkū
 Urimaiyu m-uṭaittē kannen vērrumai. (ibid. 84.)
 Cinai-nilai-k kiļavik k-aiyun kan-n-um
 Vinai-nilai y-okku m-enmanār pulavar. (ibid. 85.)
 Kannal celavu m-onnumār viņaiyē. (ibid. 86.)
 Mutar-cinai-k kiļavi-k k-atu-v-en vērrumai
 Mutar-kan varinē cinai-k-k-ai varumē. (ibid. 87.)
 Mutan-mu n-ai-varir kan-n-en vērrumai
 Cinai-mun varuta reļļi tenpa. (ibid. 88.)
 Mutalun cinaiyum poruļ-vēru paṭāa
 Nuvalun kālai-c cor-kurip piņavē. (ibid. 89.)
- Itana titu-v-ir r-ennuñ kilaviyum Atanar ceyar-patar k-otta kilaviyum. (ibid, 110.)
- Müŋraŋu m-aintaŋun töŋra-k kūriya Ākkam-oţu puṇarnta v-ētu-k kiļavi Nökkö r-aŋaiya v-eŋmaŋār pulavar. (ibid. 92.)

sometimes used for the fourth. (e.g.) nākaratu pali,1

The fourth case and the second case are sometimes used for the fifth. (e.g.) cāttarku neṭiyan²; niṇai-p-pāṇai nīṅkum tiru (K. 519). The seventh case is sometimes used for the sixth. (e.g.) kāttinkan yāṇai.3

The third and fourth cases are sometimes used for the seventh (e.g.) īmarō ivvulakattāņē (P. N. 74. 3); nālvarkku maruvil an piņil vērrumai mārrināl (Kampar. A. 216. 5).

Another point to be noted is that all nouns without any casesuffix may be used if they precede the verbs that they qualify; but only the suffix of the second case and the seventh case may be dropped if the noun follows the verb. (e.g.) unkuvam peruma ni nalkiya valanë (P.N. 136. 27); kantanen varuval ... katë (P. N. 23. 22).

The order of cases and their meanings are quite similar to what is found in Pāṇini's grammar. The parallelism between 'mūnṛākuvatē...viṇaimutal karuvi y-aṇai mutaṛṛatuvē (Tol. Col. 73) 'and' kartṛkaraṇayōs tṛtīyū (P. 2. 3. 18)' is quite striking.

- 5. 71. As regards the third case and its suffixes there are a few points to be considered:—(1) The suffix that is mentioned by Tolkappiyanar for the third case is of u; but he mentions an in the sutra ku-ai an-ena varu m-inuti... (Tol. Col. 108) but does not state there that 'an' is the suffix of the third case. From the literature of the Sangam period it is determined as the third case suffix, since it is used instead of of u. (e.g.) tunku kaiya n-onku nafaiya (P.N. 22.1). The later grammarians have taken it and its modified form al as third case suffixes.
 - (2) The suffix ofu in Tamil, when it denoted association, was
 - Ku-t-toka varūń koţai-y-etir kiļavi
 A-p-poru ļ-āgag kurittu m-ākum. (Tol. Col. 99.)
 - Itana titu-v-ir rennun kilaviyum Pāl-varai kilaviyum panpi n-ākkamum. (ibid. 110.)
 - Āran marunkin vāļcci-k kiļamai-k-kū
 Ēļu m-āku m-urai-nilat tāņa. (ibid. 98.)
 - Mūngā kuvatē
 Otu-v-ena-p peyariya vērgumai-k kiļavi
 Viņai-mutal karuvi y-anai-mutar gatuvē. (ibid. 73.)

used after the word denoting the more important object. (e.g. tāmpuṭai-t-taṭakkai vāyoṭu lumintū (P. N. 19. 10); māṇṭa-v-eṇmaṇaiviyoṭu makkaļu nirampiṇar (P. N. 191. 3). Here it differs from Sanskrit where the third case suffix is used after the word denoting the less important. Cf. sahayuktē apradhānē (Pa. 2. 3. 19). Besides, the suffix āṇ is also used in Sangam works to denote association. But later on, i.e., before or after the time of Naṇṇulār, the suffix oṭu alone came to be restricted to denote association² and also it seems to have been used after the nonn denoting the less important. (e.g.) vanta nampiyait-tampi taṇṇoṭu . . . kāṭṭi (Kampar. B. 233. 17); kuḷaṇoṭu natikaḷ taṅ kuṇaikaḷ tāravē (Kampar. B. 164. 46).

5. 72. In this context the following statement of Dr. Caldwell deserves to be considered. "Dravidian Grammarians have arranged the case system of their nouns in the Sanskrit order, and in doing so have done violence to the genius of their own grammar. The Dravidian ablative of motion and the locative are evidently one and the same case, though represented as different by grammarians, in deference to Sanskrit precedents; and the Dravidian social ablative, as some have called it or rather as it should be termed, the conjunctive case, though it takes an important position in the Dravidian Languages has been omitted in each dialect from the list of cases, or added on to the instrumental case, simply because Sanskrit knows nothing of it as separate from instrumental. The conjunctive or social stands in greater need of a place of its own in the list of cases in these languages than in Sanskrit, seeing that in these it has several case signs of its own, whilst in Sanskrit it has none,3

This statement of Dr. Caldwell, so far as Tamil is concerned, is based on two points:—(1) Mention of il as the suffix both of the fifth and the seventh cases by the author of the Nannul and the modern usage of in before kan of the seventh case as in

Oru-viņai y-oţu-c-co l-uyar-pin valittē. (Tol. Col. 91.)

Mūngā vatan-uru pāl-ā n-ōtoţii
Karuvi karutiā uţanikal vatan-porul. (Na. 297.)

C. D. G. 277 and 278.

ürinkan and (2) Dr. Caldwell's mistaking the third case suffix of to denote only association. His statement would have been correct if the author of Nannul or more correctly his commentators had arranged the cases.

But the arrangement of the cases was done not by Nannūlār or his commentators, but by Tolkāppiyanār and his Tolkāppiyanār does not at all give 'il' as predecessors. any case-suffix. He has stated that in is the fifth case suffix and that it denotes the limit or comparison and kan is the seventh case suffix denoting time and place of action, Besides, in his time and even in later times, otu was used not only to denote association, but also to denote instrument in the same way as the suffix al or ay. For instance, the sentence kotiyotu tuvakkuntān means 'he was punished with a creeper and not 'he was punished along with a creeper'. Tolkappiyanar has first stated that the suffix ofu denotes the doer of the action, the instrument and then only that it denotes the association also. Besides an also was used to denote association, e.g., tūnku-kaiyān önku naţaiya, (P. N. 22-1.) Hence at the time of Tolkappiyanar both ofu and an were used to denote instrument and association. The point why ofu and an were not treated as the suffixes of separate cases is fully discussed in Cenavaraiyam, a commentary on Collatikāram of Tolkāppiyam under sūtra 74 of Collatikaram. Hence Dr. Caldwell's criticism on the arrangement of cases by Tamil grammarians cannot at all stand.

73. The following parallelism may be seen in the use of cases between Tamil and Sanskrit:—

The third case is used to denote cause:

Tamil:

Sanskrit:

nalvinaiyāl avanai-p-pārttēn: punyēna tam apašyam²

The fourth case is used instead of gerund in Tamil and instead of
the infinitive of purpose in Sanskrit.

Innan ētū. (Tol. Col. 74.)

Hētāu. (P. A. 2.3,23.)

224 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

Tamil:

Sanskrit:

uņavukku-c-cengān for uņņac-cengān¹ bhōjanāya yāti tor bhōktum yāti.²

töttukku-p-pon3

kundalāya svarnam*

The fifth case is used to denote contrast:

Tamil:

Sanskrit:

ivan avanin celvamuțaiyan

ēşaķ tasmāt ādhyataraķs

There is a case of nominative absolute in Tamil with a noun in the nominative case followed by a gerund, e.g., mukantanar kotuppa ... uluvai porikkum ārralai (P. N. 33. 6 to 9). Here kotuttal is the effect of his having been powerful. malai peyya, kulam niraintatů. Here peytal is the cause of niraital. Similarly, the form ceytena is used instead of ceya in the above cases.

Such nominative absolutes are absent in Sanskrit; and the genitive and locative absolutes found in Sanskrit are absent in Tamil.

The author of the Pirayökavivěkam mentions that 'pulli viţāap pulaviyul' in 'pulliviţāap-pulaviyuţ tōnrumen nulla muţaikkum paṭai' is a case of locative absolute in P. V. p. 26. Since the form in Tamil has no similarity to that in Sanskrit, I do not agree with him. It may be taken only as a case of nominative absolute.

Cēṇāvaraiyar in his commentary under Tol. Col. 71 divides ceyappaṭuporuļ or object into three classes, viz., iyaṛṛappaṭuvatū or that which is newly made, vēṛupaṭukkap-paṭuvatū or that which is transformed and eytappaṭuvatū or that which is obtained or reached. This is possibly the translation of the following Kārikā in Bhartṛhari's Vākyapadiya:

Nivartyam ca vikāryam ca prāpyam ca trividham matam Tatrēpsitatamam karma . . .

(Vākyapadīya, 3rd Kāṇḍa, 45th Kārikā.)

- Atarku uţampaţutal. (Tol. Col. 76.)
- 2. Tumarthācca bhāva vacanāt. (P. A. 2.3.15.)
- Atuvāku kiļavi. (Tol. Col. 76.)
- 4. Tādarthyē caturthī vācyā. (Vārtika.)
- Pañcamīvibhaktē. (P. A. 2.3.42.);

- 5. 8. TENSES: The past tense in Tamil is used for the present or the future to denote hastel or speed e.g., itō vantēn meaning 'I am coming' or 'I shall come soon'. Sometimes the past is used for the present to denote certainty e.g. arīntēn for arīkirēn (Ka. T. Vol. 2. 583. 7). Sometimes the present is used for the future as in Sanskrit² e.g., Paratanē tūnka māmuļi cūļukinnān (Kampar, A. 216, 4.) and āgacchāmi for āgamiṣyāmi.³ The future is used for the past and vice versa¹. (e. g.) malar micai-y-ēkinān (K. 3. Comm.)—here ēkinān is used for ēkuvān; nilaiyal cevviten pa (Tol. Col. 68)—here en pa is used for enranar; cettēn for cāvēn (T. V. 3. 165).
- 5. 9. PARTICIPLES: 'Participles are of a two-fold nature in as much as they share the characteristics of both noun and verb.' In form they are adjectives in concord. They not only govern cases like the verb, but also indicate time and differences of voice. The purpose that is served by relative pronouns in Sanskrit is served by the participles in Tamil.—(e.g.) 'kuṭattai-c-ceyta kuya-vaṇ vantāṇ' corresponds to the Sanskrit sentence 'yaḥ ghaṭam akarōt saḥ āgataḥ,' which means the potter who made the pot came. The use of participles past, present and future is generally similar to that of participles in Sanskrit, though, in form, they are declined in the latter and they are not declined in the former. The use of participles denoting cause as Harim paśyan mucyatē (cf. lakṣaṇahētrōḥ (P. A. 3.1.126.) is not found in Tamil. The indeclinable past participle is used instead. (e.g.) ariyai-p-pārttu vīṭu peṛrāṇ.

Vārā-k kālattu viņai-c-cor kiļavi Irappiņu nikaļviņun cirappa-t töņrum Iyarkaiyun teļivun kiļakkun kālai. (Tol. Col. 245.)

Variamāna sāmīþyē variamānavadvā. (P. A. 3.3.131.)

Irappë y-etirvë y-ayiru kalamuñ
 Cirappa-t tönru mayanku-moli-k kilavi. (Tol. Col. 247.)

226 HISTORY OF GRAMMATICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

The indeclinable past participles of the forms ceytû, ceyyû and ceypû are generally used to denote an action done by an agent previous to another action done by the same. Their use in Tamil is generally similar to the indeclinable participles in Sanskrit. The sûtras 'avarrul mutanilai mûnrum vinaimutan muțipina (Tol. Col. 230)' and 'ceyten eccat tiranta kālam eytița puțaittē vārāk kālam (Tol. Col. 239)' convey almost the same idea as 'samānakartrkayōḥ pūrvakālē (P. A. 3.4.21). But sometimes these indeclinable participles in Tamil are used as absolutes, when their subject denotes a part of the person denoted by the subject of the finite verb. (e.g.) kai irru avan vilntān, Very rarely are they used as gerunds. (e.g.) nāvāy ōṭṭi valitolil ānṭa-v-uravōn maruka (P. N. 66.1.) Here ōṭṭi is used in the sense of 'for steering'.

The gerunds of the form ceyyiyar, ceyyiya, ceyarki, ceytena and ceya convey the same sense as the infinitive of purpose in Sanskrit. But there is difference in their use. In Sanskrit the infinitive of purpose always takes for its subject, the subject of the finite verb which follows.\(^1\) But in Tamil they may take the same subject or not.\(^2\) In the latter case we have the absolute construction. (e.g.) malai peyya, kulam niraintati.

The form ceyin is used to denote condition. Such an infinitive form is not found in Sanskrit. In the place of ceyin Sanskrit has to use 'karōti cēt.'

Similarly, the form ceyinum is used in literature to denote contrast. It means 'though one does'. In its place Sanskrit generally uses an indeclinable participle followed by api as kṛtvā api.

In Tamil a number of finite verbs are used without the connecting particle. (e.g.) välttinen paravutum (Pari. 70.83.); nir kantanen varuval (P.N. 23.17.); ni nalkinai vitumati (P. N. 136.24). In such cases, all the finite verbs except the last are

Samāna-kartṛkēşu tumun. (P. A. 3.3.158.)

Enai y-eccam vinai-mutal-āņum
 Āņ-van tiyaiyum vinai-nilai y-āņum
 Tām-iyan marunkin mutiyu m-enpa. (Tol. Col. 232.)

taken to be indeclinable participles by the author of the Nannul and the later grammarians.1

5.10. PECULIAR INTERPRETATION OF CERTAIN CONSTRUCTIONS BY TAMIL GRAMMARIANS: 5.101. In the sentence 'Nampi pon periyan' which means Nampi is great on account of wealth, Cankaranamaccivayappulavar, a commentator on the Nannul says under the sutra 'uyartinai totarnta . . .' (Na. 377) that the word Nampi is uyartinai eluvay or subject and the word pon is actinai eluvay and the latter is peculiarly followed by the uyartinai predicate periyan.2 When one reads the sentence, it may clearly appear that something is predicated of Nampi and not pon; besides the predicative element is not confined to the word periyan alone. Hence under the general rules of grammar it must be taken that Nampi is the subject and the compound word pon periyan corresponding to Sanskrit dhanamahitah is the predicate or periyan is the predicate and pon is the enlargement of the predicate in the sense of ponnal. If pon and periyan are taken to be two separate words, it may be easily said that pon is third case, with its third case suffix dropped according to the sutra Irutiyu m-ifaiyu m-ellüv-urupum—Neri-pat uporul-vayi nilavutal varaiyār (Tol. Col. 103) and the third case denotes cause as is sanctioned by the word ētu in Tol. Col. 74; or pon periyan may be taken to be a verb formed from a compound ponperumai. The objection that is raised by Cankaranamaccivayappulavar against the latter interpretation is that, in that case, it must have been porperiyan according to the rules of sandhi. Either this form may be brought under an exception, or the former interpretation may be accepted. It has a parallel in the sentence aval kannāl kottai where the third case is used. Similarly nampi ponnal periyan has assumed the form of nampi pon periyan.

If we carefully read through the sūtra 'uyartiṇai toṭarnta poruļ mutalārum ataṇoṭu cārttiṇ attiṇai muṭipiṇa' (Na. 377) Caṅkaranamaccivāyappulavar seems to voice forth the opinion of

Vinai-murrē viņai y-ecca m-ākalum Kurippu-mur rīr-ecca m-ākalu m-uļavē. (Na. 351.)

^{2.} Na. C., p. 206.

Nannulär. One is at a loss to know why Nannulär should have chosen to suggest that explanation. There is, in my opinion, no sūtra in Tolkāppiyam conveying the same idea; but I have come into contact with Tamil Pandits who think that this sūtra is based on Tol. Col. 61. It may be considered here whether it is so or not.

5.1011. The sûtra referred to is this:—

Kaṇṇum tōļum mulaiyum piravum

Paṇmai cuṭṭiya ciṇainilai-k kiļavi

Paṇmai kūrun kaṭappā ṭ-ilave

Tamvinai-k k-iyalu m-cluttalan kaṭaiyē. (Tol. Col. 61.)

This may be translated thus:—The words denoting the limbs as kan, tol, mulai, etc., which generally denote more than one (i. e.) two, need not denote two except when they are followed by verbs suited to them, i.e., neuter plural verbs. The examples which are given by llampūranar under this sūtra are kan nallal, tol nallal, and mulai nallal. He has not stated that the subject, in such cases, is kan, tol or mulai. But the later grammarians and the author of the Nannūl seem to have mistaken kan, etc., to be in the nominative case and hence the subject of nallal, etc.

I would prefer to interpret the sūtra as follows:—The words kaņ, tōļ, mulai, etc., which refer to objects forming natural pairs do not invariably denote the pair unless they are followed by a plural verb. Hence it is not absolutely necessary that a woman should have both her eyes beautiful to be described as avaļ kaņ nallaļ. Such a sentence would be appropriate even when one of the eyes was beautiful. To be more clear, I may take the example 'Kaṇṇaki mulai-y-ilāļ', which I have often heard used by recognised Pandits. It is known to every Tamil scholar that Kaṇṇaki, the heroine of the Cilappatikāram cut off one of her breasts and threw it away at Madura. Hence 'Kaṇṇaki mulai-y-ilāļ' does not mean that Kaṇṇaki is devoid of her breasts, but it means that Kaṇṇaki is devoid of one breast. Hence this sūtra does not deal with the form of words, but their meaning.

If such an interpretation is not given, I think that this sutra is not necessary here and hence it may be omitted; for, it is certain that Tolkappiyanar would have taken only aval as the subject of nallal and hence the predicate nallal agrees with the subject in gender and number.

One may question what the construction of kan is, in 'aval kan nallal' according to this interpretation. As I said in the case of the form pon periyan, one may take kan as a separate word in third case with the case-suffix dropped, or may take kannallal as a compound acting the part of the predicate to aval.

- 5.102. There are two more types of sentences where my explanation of the construction happens to differ from that ordinarily found in commentaries.
- 5.1021. 'Cākāṭum accu iṛum' (K. 475) represents one of these types. On this Kuraļ, Parimēlaļakar writes that the verb iṛum which is suited to the word accū which denotes a part of the cart is used here as the predicate of the word cākāṭū (which denotes the whole). The sentence means 'the cart will have its axle broken.' Though it is the axle that breaks, the cart also may be said to break in its axle. Hence it seems to me that it is not absolutely necessary to take iṛum to be a ciṇai-viṇai or the verb suited to the ciṇai or part. Parimēlaļakar has said so perhaps with the idea that accū is also a subject, as interpreted by Naṇnūlār. (Cf. pon periyan supra.) It has already been said that it is against the ordinary ways of expressing one's idea. Hence, in this sentence, acciṛum may be taken as the predicate of cākāṭum or iṛum may be taken as the predicate and accū as the seventh case singular with the case-suffix dropped.
- 5.1022. 'Alattarkariyai arivum īramum' (P. N. 20. 516.) represents another type. The commentator on Puranānūrū says that the ciņai, arivum and īramum have taken for their predicate alattarkariyai, the verb suited to the mutal or the person having arivu, īram, etc. It is evident that the word alattarkariyai is second person singular and means 'you cannot be measured', and the words arivu and īram are each neuter singular meaning knowledge and compassion respectively. Hence the sentence may be taken to mean 'you cannot be measured in your knowledge and compassion'. Since alattarkariyai is second person

230 HISTORY OF GRAMMTICAL THEORIES IN TAMIL

singular, the word ni may be taken as the subject that is understood and arivum and iramum may be taken as nouns in the seventh case with the case-suffixes dropped, since the dropping of the seventh case suffix in nouns which follow the predicates is allowed by the sûtra

> Ai-y-un kan-n-u m-allā-p poruļ-vayin Mey-y-urupu tokāa v-iruti y-āna. (Tol. Col. 105.)

and such examples are found in plenty in literature.—(e. g.) kantanen varuval...kāṭē (P. N. 23.22.)—Here kāṭē means kāṭṭiṇkaṇṇē; tikaittaṇai pōluñ ceykai (Kampar. K. 247.78.)—here ceykai means ceykaiyiṇkaṇ.

Hence I think that it is not necessary to formulate, as is done by the later grammarians, that the words which denote parts of a whole may take predicates after them which are suited to the whole and vice versa.

CONCLUSION.

It may be evident from what has been said that Tolkappiyanār clearly realised that Tamil was not related to Sanskrit either morphologically or genealogically and deftly exploited the ideas contained in the earlier grammatical literature in Sanskrit, particularly in those works which dealt with Vedic etymology, without doing the least violence to the genius of the Tamil language. On the other hand, the large influx of Sanskritic elements in Tamil since the time of Tolkappiyanar appears to have so far clouded the linguistic vision of the author of Vīracōliyam that he was led to assume close family relationship between Tamil and Sanskrit. Further the author of Viracoliyam does not appear to have realised that Tolkappiyanar's model was not Panini so much as the Pratisakhyas and the Nirukta. As a result of this important divergence in view-point, the Viracolivam proceeded to violently dragoon Tamil language and grammar into the groove of Sanskrit-a feature which, in no sense, is traceable in Tolkāppiyam. It must, however, be conceded, in fairness to Viracoliyam, that its author has brought within the scope of his grammar such changes in the Tamil language as had come about since the time of Tolkappiyanar.

Nannūlār was not a victim to the linguistic deflection which marred the value of the Vīracōliyam. While he adhered to the method of Tolkāppiyanār in respect of his fidelity to the genius of the Tamil language, he proceeded to complete the supplementing process initiated in the Vīracōliyam. A fateful periodicity appears to have characterised the line of Tamil Grammarians; for, the author of the Pirayōkavivēkam who came after Nannūlār has lapsed with redoubled vigour into the Sanskritising groove of the Vīracōliyam.

But, luckily, the vitality of Tamil outlived all these grammatical vicissitudes. It is indeed gratifying that some of the latest grammarians—Vaittiyanātatēcikar, the Rev. C.J. Beschi and Civañānamunivar—have happily switched back to the healthy out-look and ideal of Tolkāppiyam.



INDEX.

N. B.—NUMBERS NOTED BELOW REFER TO PAGES.

Akhyāta, 105 Akhyātam, 142 Abhyantara-prayatna, 9 A_{I} , 204 Ablative infinitive, 190 A1,204Ablative of motion, 222 Alaii, 150 Absolute, 190, 226 Abstract noun, 105 Alattarkariyai, 229 Acai, 36 Acaii, 150 Aliyal, 180 Allo, 143 Acai-nilai, 198 Alphabet, 65 Acci, 204 Accii, 229 lation sandhi), 72 Accusative, 108, 109 Action, 154 Am, 204 Active affirmative relative participle. An, 204 An, 123 183 Active affirmative voice, 153, 154 Active negative, 153 Active negative relative participle, 183, 185 Añcal, 55, 180 Active negative voice, 171 Ance, 55 Active voice, 165 Anci, 55 Accent, 5, 174 Accidence, 3 Adbhava (Read tadbhava), 53 Adai, 55 Ancient Tamil, 194 Adēša, 72, 92, 93 Anga, 163 Adjective, 203, 211, 225 Ango, 163 Adu, 55 Anka, 198 Adu. 56 Ani, 204 Adverb, 203 Aninga, 184 Affirmative, 194 Affirmative indeclinable participle, Aniti, 209 170 Anittiyam, 209 Affirmative past participle, 187 Anke, 55 Affirmative voice, 173, 177, 178, 179 Agam, 54, 55 Annā, 112 Agama, 71, 92 Annadammulu, 49 Agastya, 1, 2 Annai, 120 Aghösa, 9 Annay, 112 Aha, 198 Aham, 55 120, 181 Akam, 55, 114 April, 143, 144 Akanānūra, 133

Alapetai, 5, 13, 14, 15, 17, 34-38, 41 Alvali-p-punarcci (=non-case-re-Alveolar, 20, 43, 46, 59 Analogy, 57, 111, 117, 124, 126, 131, Anavagatasaniskāran, 201 Ancient period, 5, 18, 25, 39, 43, 60, 64, 65, 67, 71, 113, 121, 125, 130, 136, 153, 154, 188, 190, 191 Aningu, 168, 169, 171 Anmoli-t-tokai, 206-208, 212 Aupāl (=masculine singular), 107,

INDEX.

Antar-bhavita-nic, 149
Antastha, 44, 48
Antil, 198
Anusvāra, 63
Aihāra-k-hurukkam, 15
Aindra school, 4
Aindra Vyakarana, 2, 3
Ainkurunagu, 151
Ainter 20
Aippaci, 39
Aintām vērrumai, 109
Aivar, 124
Ai-vērrumai, 108
American English, 60
Appellative verb, 115, 141, 145
Association 218
Apposition, 218
Ar, 124
Ār, 124
Aracan, 120
Aracayiyallay, 116
Aracarkal, 118
Agām vērgumai, 109
Aratayam, 28
Arikiren, 225
Arinten, 225
Arinticinor, 194
Acidal 101
Arital, 181
Agivu, 229
Agri 150
Arti, 150
Arti, 150
Arti, 150
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67 Arthah, 104
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67 Arthah, 104 Aruļān, 174
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67 Arthah, 104 Aruļān, 174
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67 Arthah, 104 Aruļān, 174 Arupān, 174
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67 Arthah, 104 Aruļān, 174 Aruppān, 145 Aruppippānai, 148
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67 Arthah, 104 Aruļān, 174 Arupān, 174 Aruppān, 145 Aruppippānai, 148 Aruvar, 124
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67 Arthah, 104 Aruļān, 174 Arupān, 174 Arupān, 145 Arupppānai, 148 Arwar, 124 Arvan affinities, 135
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67 Arthah, 104 Aruļān, 174 Arupān, 145 Aruppippānai, 148 Aruvar, 124 Aryan affinities, 135 Aryan languages, 59, 60
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67 Arthah, 104 Aruļān, 174 Aruppān, 145 Aruppippānai, 148 Aruvar, 124 Aryan affinities, 135 Aryan languages, 59, 60 Asamvijāda, 202
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67 Arthah, 104 Aruļān, 174 Aruppān, 145 Aruppippānai, 148 Aruvar, 124 Aryan affinities, 135 Aryan languages, 59, 60 Asamvijāda, 202
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67 Arthah, 104 Aruļān, 174 Arupān, 174 Aruppān, 145 Aruppippānai, 148 Aruvar, 124 Aryan affinities, 135 Aryan languages, 59, 60 Asamvijāda, 202 Asmat, 129
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67 Arthah, 104 Aruļān, 174 Arupān, 145 Aruppippānai, 148 Aruvar, 124 Aryan affinities, 135 Aryan languages, 59, 60 Asamuijāda, 202 Asmat, 129 Aspirate, 47, 63
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67 Arthah, 104 Aruļān, 174 Arupān, 145 Aruppiņpānai, 148 Aruvar, 124 Aryan affinities, 135 Aryan languages, 59, 60 Asamuijāda, 202 Asmat, 129 Aspirate, 47, 63 Āirita, 70
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanepatam, 165, 166 Arralen, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67 Arthah, 104 Aruhan, 174 Aruppan, 145 Aruppippani, 148 Aruvar, 124 Aryan affinities, 135 Aryan languages, 59, 60 Asamvijnata, 202 Asmat, 129 Aspirate, 47, 63 Airita, 70 Assertion, 174
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67 Arthah, 104 Aruļān, 174 Arupān, 145 Aruppān, 145 Aruppippānai, 148 Arwar, 124 Aryan affinities, 135 Aryan languages, 59, 60 Asasīvijnāta, 202 Asmat, 129 Aspirate, 47, 63 Airita, 70 Assertion, 174 Assertive verb, 196
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67 Arthah, 104 Aruļān, 174 Arupān, 145 Arupānpān, 145 Arupapān, 148 Arwar, 124 Aryan affinities, 135 Aryan languages, 59, 60 Asamut, 129 Aspirate, 47, 63 Airita, 70 Assertion, 174 Assertive verb, 196 Assimilation, 71, 82
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67 Arthah, 104 Aruļān, 174 Arupān, 145 Aruppippānai, 148 Aruvar, 124 Aryan affinities, 135 Aryan languages, 59, 60 Asamut, 129 Aspirate, 47, 63 Airita, 70 Assertion, 174 Assertive verb, 196 Assimilation, 71, 82 Association, 221-223
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67 Arthah, 104 Aruļān, 174 Arupān, 145 Aruppippānai, 148 Aruvar, 124 Aryan affinities, 135 Aryan languages, 59, 60 Asamut, 129 Aspirate, 47, 63 Airita, 70 Assertion, 174 Assertive verb, 196 Assimilation, 71, 82 Association, 221-223
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67 Arthaḥ, 104 Aruļān, 174 Arupān, 145 Aruppān, 145 Aruppippānai, 148 Aruvar, 124 Aryan affinities, 135 Aryan languages, 59, 60 Asamuijnāta, 202 Asmat, 129 Aspirate, 47, 63 Airita, 70 Assertion, 174 Assertive verb, 196 Assimilation, 71, 82 Association, 221-223 Astādhyāyl, 72, 93
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67 Arthaḥ, 104 Aruļān, 174 Arupān, 145 Aruppān, 145 Aruppippānai, 148 Aruvar, 124 Aryan affinities, 135 Aryan languages, 59, 60 Asamut, 129 Aspirate, 47, 63 Airita, 70 Assertion, 174 Assertive verb, 196 Assimilation, 71, 82 Association, 221-223 Astādhyāyl, 72, 93 Āta, 56
Arti, 150 Arkal, 117 Arkal, 117 Arpanēpatam, 165, 166 Arralēn, 143 Arrested voiceless spirant, 67 Arthaḥ, 104 Aruļān, 174 Arupān, 145 Aruppān, 145 Aruppippānai, 148 Aruvar, 124 Aryan affinities, 135 Aryan languages, 59, 60 Asamuijnāta, 202 Asmat, 129 Aspirate, 47, 63 Airita, 70 Assertion, 174 Assertive verb, 196 Assimilation, 71, 82 Association, 221-223 Astādhyāyl, 72, 93

```
Atanköttacan, 1, 2
Atharvaveda Prätiśākhyā, 31, 42,
  63
Atike, 50
Atmanam, 111
Atmanepada, 145, 165, 166
Attam, 56
Atti, 204
Atti, 204
Atti, 204
Attuvaida, 26
Attuvittāl, 148
Atuka, 50
Atukku, 56
Atu, 55, 135, 136, 219
Aţūu, 120, 121
Atu-verrumai, 108
A. tu, 135
Aukāra-k-kurukkam, 15
Author of Ilakkanakkottů, 2, 3, 174-
  176, 208
Author of Ilakkana-vilakka-c-cura-
   vali, 2
Author of Ilakkanavilakkam, 2, 3,
   5, 8, 12, 15, 21, 34, 37, 39, 61, 65,
   101, 107, 142-144, 149, 158-160,
   163, 173, 181, 182, 184, 193, 196,
   200, 203, 208, 214, 220
Author of Nannal, 1-3, 5, 8, 21, 34,
   37, 39, 60, 62, 97, 120, 126, 127,
   129, 144, 146, 154, 168, 171, 173,
   174, 176, 184, 193, 196, 200, 208,
   220, 222, 223, 227, 228
Author of Neminatam, 1, 11, 13, 17,
   34, 37, 39, 60, 65, 97, 101, 107, 142,
   192, 193, 195, 200, 208, 220
Author of Pirayökavivēkam, 1, 4,
   28, 34, 35, 104, 116, 144, 145, 149,
   165, 176, 186, 188, 194, 198, 203,
   205, 207, 208, 211, 224
Author of Tolkappiya-mutar-chiti-
   ravirutti, 2
 Author of Tonnal-vilakkam, 2, 3,
   37, 39, 195
 Author of Viracoliyam, 1, 2, 4, 5, 7,
   11, 13, 34, 37, 39, 41, 60, 62, 65,
   94, 97, 98, 100, 101, 104, 111, 116,
   119, 120, 126, 127, 128, 131, 136,
   142, 144, 148, 149, 154, 158, 159,
   161, 162, 163, 165, 168, 173, 176, 178, 179, 180, 181, 191, 192, 193,
   204, 205, 207-209, 211, 212, 231
```

Auvai, 32 Auxiliary, 152, 153 Av, 135 Avai, 135, 136 Avaikal, 135 Aval, 135, 136 Avan, 123, 135, 136, 159, 218 Avar, 135, 136, 159 Avarkal, 135, 136 Apayati, 202 Avinayan, 1, 2 Avoidance of Hiatus, 71 Avviyapāva, 209 Appiyatattitap, 205 Avyayibhāva, 209, 212 Aytam, 8, 11-16, 33, 51, 64, 65, 68-Ayudha, 69 A. rinai, 107, 108, 111, 120, 122, 140, 164, 218

B

Bahunamani, 202 Bahusah, 212 Bahuvrihi, 206, 208, 212 Bāhya-prayatna, 9 Benedictive, 181 Beschi, C. J. 2, 9, 39, 40, 54, 68, 101, 146, 173, 174, 231 Bharata's Natyaiastra, 37 Bharataśāstra, 37 Bhāgya, 49 Bhāratam, 57 Bhartrhari, 224 Bhavati, 202 Bhāvē, 165 Bhāvē-prayōga, 144, 166 Brāhmaņa-strī, 204 Brahmans, 50 Brahmi script, 57 Brhaspati, 4 Brugmann, 83 Budhnah, 202 Burnell, Dr. 4

C

Cā. 40 Cacuminal articulation, 59 Cākāṭii, 229 Calam, 22 Caldwell Dr. 21, 23, 24, 26-30, 32, 40, 47, 49, 51, 54, 55, 57, 58, 65,

67, 69, 110, 122-125, 128, 138, 139, 146, 169, 176, 177, 186, 222, 223 Cămăniya-tattitan, 205 Cankara-namaccivāya-p-pulavar, 2, 12, 227 Cantippatalam, 92, 95 Canti-y-akkaram, 28 Cape Comorin, 2 Căraippămpii. 208, 209 Cardinal, 141 Carita, 24 Caritai, 24 Căriyai (=that which is appended on) 72, 110, 114, 122, 162, 171, 186, 205 Cărpeluttii, 10, 12, 16, 17, 39, 61, 70 Case, 108, 219 Case-relation, 208 Case-suffix, 72, 120, 122, 128, 159, 171, 195, 197, 205, 214, 215, 216, 219, 230 Case-system, 222 Catiti, 22 Caturthi, 109 Caurankaram, 194 Causal, 150, 151 Causal verb, 145, 146, 148, 149 Cause, 187, 219 Cavan, 174 Caves, 225 Celka, 180 Celliya, 180 Celliyar, 180 Cemmai, 205 Cempatcey, 1 Cēnāvaraiyam, 223 Cēņāvaraiyar, 1, 3, 113, 142, 158, 160, 163, 167, 170, 175, 187, 188, 193, 199, 200, 203, 206-208, 213-215, 224 Centi, 177 Centamil, 69 Cepam, 22 Cēramān, 112 Cerebral, 20, 43, 44, 46, 47 Cerebral consonant, 58, 59 Certi, 150 Cerminkaje, 178 Certainty, 35, 225 Certti, 147 Cetten, 225 Ceya, 187, 190, 194

Ceyal, 142

Ceyappatuporul, 143, 224 Cevappatuporul-kungā-viņai (transitive verb), 146 Ceyappatuporul-kungiya-vinai (intransitive verb), 146 Ceyarkú. 187, 189, 190, 193 Ceyin, 187, 190, 194, 226 Ceyinalial, 190 Ceyinum, 191, 194, 226 Ceykinga, 186 Ceyminhal, 178 Ceypavan (=doer), 142 Ceyporul, 142 Ceypii, 194, 226 Ceyta, 186 Ceytakkāl, 191 Ceytal, 193, 194 Ceytalum, 194 Ceytamus, 191 Centapin, 191 Ceytarkii, 194 Ceytena, 187, 190, 224 Ceytu, 194, 226 Ceyya, 194 Ceyyanaal, 193, 194 Ceyya, 194, 226 Ceyyul-iyal, 36 Ceyyunkal, 178 Ceyvali, 191 Ceyvotarků, 190 Ceyvara, (=doer), 142 Ceyvittan, 148 Ceyyal, 180 Сеууа́таі, 175, 189 Ceyyamē, 178 Ceyyamal-irukkinya, 185 Ceyyamal-irukkum, 185 Ceyyamal-irunta, 185 Ceyyappatāmal-irukkinga, 186 Ceyyappajāmal-irukkum, 186 Ceyyappajāmal-irunta, 186 Ceyyaptatata, 186 Ceyyāta, 185 Ceyyatir, 180 Ceyyatû, 188 Ceyyate, 180 Ceyyatêyum, 180 Ceyyateyunhal, 180 Ceyyati, 180 Ceyyavenjum, 180 Ceyyavitis, 190 Ceyyavittal, 190 Сеуубу, 180

Ceyyel, 180 Ceyyitam, 191 Ceyyiya, 187, 189 Ceyviyar, 187, 189 Character, 57 Characteristic principle, 50, 51, 53 Chest sound, 6 Cila, 23 Cilappatikāram, 117, 127, 165, 219, 228Cilar, 140 Cinai-vinai, 229 Cirmai, 202 Cirumai, 205 Сігарріі, 200 Civakacintāmaņi, 131, 132 Civañana-munivar, 2, 12, 16, 17, 18, 21, 29, 38, 39, 54, 61, 231 Classical Sanskrit, 63 Classification, 43, 71, 104, 105, 107, 120, 143, 145, 165, 208, 212 Clearness, 157 Coalescence, 24, 31, 123 Col., 104, 216 Cōla, 112 Colan, 112 Collatikara-k-kurippu, 113 Collatikaram, 98, 113, 167, 216, 223 Collective first personal pronoun, 129 Collective second personal pronoun, 134 Collective sense, 217 Collective third person plural pronoun, 136 Colloquial, 57, 153, 161, 162, 170, 177, 179, 180, 182, 184, 192, 194, 219 Collubuvittlväye, 152 Collurupii, 126 Command, 180 Commentator on Nannal, 1, 2, 213, Commentator on Tolkappiyam, 1, 2, 196, 199, 213, 214 Commentator on Viracoliyam, 1 Comparison, 195, 219 Compensatory lengthening, 91, 99 Compound, 4, 204, 205, 207, 209-216 Concord, 218, 225 Condition, 187, 194, 226 Confusion, 164, 218 Conjunctive-relation, 208 Conjugation, 5, 40

Conjunct consonants, 25, 27, 33, 61 Conjunction, 165 Conjunctive particle, 192 Consonant, 11, 12, 17, 23, 26, 34, 41, 43, 49, **5**2, 53, **5**4, 58, 61-64, 66, 67, 73, 153 Consonant secondary sound, 17 Contrast, 194 Convertibility of surds and sonants. 49, 50, 57 Cōrayati, 152 Cu, 120 Cukkilam, 25 Cutteluttii, 117 Carfu, 40 Cūţū, 40 Cuppiramaniya-tifcitar, 1 Cuvāmināta-tēcikar, 2

D

Danta, 49 Dāpitah, 153 Dative, 193 Declension, 5, 40, 108, 110, 111, 120, Definition, 104-106, 141, 143, 195, 196, 197, 199, 200 Demonstrative base, 139 Demonstrative plural, 74 Demonstrative pronoun, 125 Demonstrative root, 117 Denominative, 145 Dental, 20, 43, 47, 59, 67 Dental spirant, 68 Derivation, 203 Dēvanāgarī script, 30 Dēvadattā, 36 Dhanamahitah, 227 Dharmakīrti, 213 Dhātu, 299 Dialectic peculiarity, 50 Diphthong, 18, 19, 29, 31, 32 Dirgha, 4 Dirgha-sandhi, 101 Dissimilarities, 41, 61, 101, 102 Double causal, 148, 153 Double plural, 127, 160, 161, 162 Doublet, 133 Doubling, 147, 149 Dravidian grammarians, 222 Dravidian languages, 58, 73, 222 Dravidian roots, 58 Dravya, 105

Dual, 110
Durgācārya, 105
Dvandva, 49, 208, 209, 212
Dvigu, 209, 212
Dvija, 36
Dvitīya, 109
Dyōtaka, 197

East Norwegian, 60

Eccam, 153, 183, 194

E

Ekapati, 165 Ekinen, 225 El, 75, 141. Elir, 134 Elision, 71 Ellänammaiyum, 129 Ellarum, 129, 134, 136 Ellām, 129, 130 Ellirum, 129, 134 Ellörsen, 134 Elongation, 151 Elām vērrumai, 109 Elayiram, 88 Eläyiram, 88 Elunaru, 88 Elnarn, 88 Eluttatikāram, 3, 9, 10, 82, 93, 199, 200 Eluttů, 51-53 Elu, 75, 141 Ending, 108 Enga, 161 English, 49 Engo, 161 Eppai, 40 Ennal, 40 Essitattil, 219 Ennu-k-kuri-p-peyar, 106 Ennutai, 193 Enpākku, 193 Enta, 56 Entu, 50 Enumerative word, 217 Epenthesis, 83 Epicene plural, 108, 124, 135, 137 Epigraphia Indica, 68 Etirmarai, 172 Ettam-vērrumai, 109 Ettu, 56 Etu, 138 Etymology, 31, 67 Euphonic v, 123

279	******
E1 67 105	Cenatha 30
Euphony, 67, 195	Grantha, 30
Evai, 138	Grantha script, 57
Evaikal, 138	Graul Dr. 171
Eval, 138	Guna letters, 93, 97
Eval, 153	Gundert Dr. 171
Eval-vinai, 146, 149	Guninā, 111
Evap, 137, 138	Guninām, 111
Evar, 138	Guttural, 6, 20, 43, 65, 67
Evarkal, 138	Guttural vowel, 20
Explosive, 48, 64	Cumulati Tolletti 20
	н
Eyan, 204 Eytappatuvatú (=prāpyam), 224	N
Eytuppatwoum (-prapy,m), 224	Haplology, 85, 91, 193
	Haradatta, 36
F	Hard palate, 44, 46
False analogy, 27	Harinā, 111
Feminine, 104, 108, 123, 135, 137	Harinām, 111
Feminine abstract, 25	Harmonic sequence of vowels, 79
Final consonant, 61	Haste, 225
Final vowel, 41	Hějatě, 202
Flexional increment, 72, 110, 122,	Hiatus, 36, 71, 74, 83
195	Honorific singular, 127, 128, 131,
Following word, 72	136, 162, 178, 179, 219
	Hrasva, 4
Form, 159	Later and the second of the se
Formative element, 196	1 204
Fortunatov, 59	I, 204
Fricative, 43, 44, 47, 48, 68	I, 152, 153
Function of case-suffixes, 4	Icai, (=sound) 55, 199
Functional syncretism, 219	Idam, 136
Future perfect, 171	Idi, 50
Future relative participle, 183	Idu, 56
Future tense, 154, 159, 167, 169, 171,	Ila, 143
225	Haimai, 24
Future participle, 213, 217	Ilakkanavilakka-c-cūrāvaļi, 2, 3
	Ilakkanavilakkam, 2, 13, 18, 48, 66
G	Ilakkanakkottu, 2
Gacchan, 186	Ilakkiyam, 25
Gal, 128, 164	Ilamai, 24
Galu, 164	Ilampuranar, 1, 7, 15, 32, 47, 48, 82,
Gamyamāna, 186	91, 97-100, 113, 114, 149, 160, 213-
Gantōh, 190	215, 228
Gantum, 187	Illa, 23
Gårgya, 201	Illai, 144
Gatvā, 187	Imitation, 165
Gender, 123, 124, 216, 218, 229	Immediateness, 170
Genitive absolute, 224	Imperative, 153
Genius of the Tamil language, 3,	Imperative law 51, 54
25, 177	Imperative mood, 177-181
Gerund, 187, 193, 194, 226	Impu, 56
Ghōşa, 9	Iyay, 204
Gopinatha Rao, 57	Incu, 55
Gradation, 41	Inku, 219
Grammatical gender, 104	Indeclinable, 203
Grand gent, 60	Indeclinable participle, 151-154, 173

INDEX.

Indeclinable past participle, 187, 194, 225, 226 Indefinite pronoun, 125, 140 Independence, 200 Indicative mood, 153, 154, 183 Indian Antiquary, 30 Indian, 34 Indo-European language, 41, 118 Indra, 4, 34 Infinite of purpose, 187, 226 Infinitive, 153, 194 Infinitive mood, 183 Inga, 163 Inga, 163 Inga, 163 Initial consonant, 61, 62 Initial vowel, 41, 42 Injunction, 181 Inkr, 56 Ingatorků, 143 Inpů, 55 Ingatorků, 143 Inpů, 55 Ingatorků, 143 Insertion, 71 Instrument, 196, 219 Instrumental, 116, 222 Interjection, 195 Intermediate Demonstrative pronoun, 135 Internediate stage, 179 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Internative, 146 Invêrrumai, 108 Ir, 124 Ir, 125 Irum, 229 Irum,	prayatna, 48 =side word), 104, 195,
Indefinite pronoun, 125, 140 Independence, 200 Indicative mood, 153, 154, 183 Indian Antiquary, 30 Indira, 34 Indo-European language, 41, 118 Indra, 4, 34 Infinitive mood, 183 Initial consonant, 61, 62 Initial consonant, 61, 62 Initial vowel, 41, 42 Injunction, 181 Inka, 55 Ingulator, 143 Insertion, 71 Instrument, 196, 219 Interrogative base, 139 Interrogative verb, 196 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 In-verrumai, 108 Ir, 124 Ir, 124 Ir, 124 Iraca-p-pavittira-p-pallavataraiyan, 2 Iram, 229 Iram, 229 Iram, 229 Iraw, 220 Iraw, 220 Iraw, 229 Iraw, 229 Iraw, 229 Iraw, 229 Iraw, 220 Iraw, 220 Iraw, 230 Ilaka, 23 Ilawai, 135 Ilawai, 135 Ilawai, 135 Ilawai, 135 Ilawai, 135 Ivai, 135 Ivaia, 135 Ivaia, 135 Ivaia, 125 Ivaia, 135 Ivaia, 135 Ivaia, 135 Ivaia, 135 Ivaia, 135 I	216
Independence, 200 Indicative mood, 153, 154, 183 Indian Antiquary, 30 Indian, 34 Indo-European language, 41, 118 Indra, 4, 34 Infinite of purpose, 187, 226 Infinitive, 153, 194 Infinitive mood, 183 Inga, 163 Inga, 163 Initial consonant, 61, 62 Initial vowel, 41, 42 Injunction, 181 Inkk, 55 Ingalorků, 143 Instrument, 196, 219 Instrumental, 116, 222 Interjection, 195 Intermediate Demonstrative pronoun, 135 Interrogative base, 139 Interrogative base, 139 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Internatitive, 146 In-vērrumai, 108 Ir, 124 Ir, 124 Irda-p-pavittirap-pallavataraiyan, 2 Iram, 229 Iraw, 229 Ira	7, 8, 43, 44, 47, 48, 52
Indicative mood, 153, 154, 183 Indian Antiquary, 30 Indira, 34 Indo-European language, 41, 118 Indra, 4, 34 Infinite of purpose, 187, 226 Infinitive, 153, 194 Infinitive mood, 183 Ingo, 163 Ingo, 163 Initial consonant, 61, 62 Initial vowel, 41, 42 Injunction, 181 Inkē, 56 Inkin, 55 Ingatorkū, 143 Inscription, 118, 119, 148, 175, 184 Inscription, 195 Intermediate Demonstrative pronoun, 135 Intermediate stage, 179 Interrogative base, 139 Interrogative pronoun, 125, 137 Interrogative pronoun, 125, 137 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 In-vērrumai, 108 Ir, 124 Ir, 124 Iraca-p-pavittirap-pallavataraiyan, 2 Iram, 229 Iram, 229 Iram, 229 Iraw, 229 Iraw, 229 Iraw, 229 Iraw, 229 Iraw, 224 Irawaninga, 186 Irical, 148, 149 Irit, 150 Irum, 229 Irawar, 124, 140 Iravāninga, 186 Iravar, 179	
Indian Antiquary, 30 Indira, 34 Indo-European language, 41, 118 Indra, 4, 34 Infinitive mood, 183 Inga, 163 Initial consonant, 61, 62 Initial vowel, 41, 42 Injunction, 181 Inkk, 55 Ingatorků, 143 Insertion, 71 Instrument, 196, 219 Instrumental, 116, 222 Internediate Demonstrative pronoun, 135 Internediate Stage, 179 Internediate stage, 179 Internogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 In-vērrumai, 108 Ir, 124 Ir, 124 Ir, 124 Iraca-p-pavittira-p-pallavataraiyan, 2 Iransima, 229 Iransima, 107, 140, 141 Irvaninga, 186 Irval, 148, 149 Irit, 150 Irum, 229 Irum, 220 I	
Indira, 34 Indo-European language, 41, 118 Indra, 4, 34 Infinite of purpose, 187, 226 Infinitive, 153, 194 Infinitive mood, 183 Inga, 163 Initial consonant, 61, 62 Initial vowel, 41, 42 Injunction, 181 Inkk, 56 Inkh, 55 Ingatorků, 143 Insertion, 71 Instrument, 196, 219 Instrumental, 116, 222 Interjection, 195 Intermediate Demonstrative pronoun, 135 Interrogative base, 139 Interrogative verb, 196 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 Ir, 124 Ir, 124 Iraca-p-pavittira-p-pallavataraiyan, 2 Iram, 229 Iram, 229 Iram, 229 Iram, 229 Iranjam-vērrumai, 109 Iranja, 107, 140, 141 Iravāninga, 186 Irkual, 148, 149 Irki, 150 Irum, 229 Irum, 220 I	243
Indo-European language, 41, 118 Indra, 4, 34 Infinite of purpose, 187, 226 Infinitive, 153, 194 Infinitive mood, 183 Inga, 163 Initial consonant, 61, 62 Initial vowel, 41, 42 Injunction, 181 Inkê, 56 Inkû, 55 Ingatarkû, 143 Inscription, 118, 119, 148, 175, 184 Inscription, 118, 119, 148, 175, 184 Instrument, 196, 219 Instrument, 196, 219 Interrogative base, 139 Interrogative verb, 196 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 In-vērrumai, 108 Ir, 124 Iravāninra, 186 Irawā, 229 Iram, 229 Iran, 220 Iran, 220 Iran, 23 Iran, 24 Iran, 25 Iran, 26 Iran, 28 Iran	
Indra, 4, 34 Infinite of purpose, 187, 226 Infinitive, 153, 194 Infinitive mood, 183 Inga, 163 Initial consonant, 61, 62 Initial vowel, 41, 42 Injunction, 181 Inke, 56 Inkh, 55 Ingatorků, 143 Inscription, 118, 119, 148, 175, 184 Insertion, 71 Instrument, 196, 219 Instrumental, 116, 222 Interjection, 195 Intermediate Demonstrative pronoun, 135 Interrogative base, 139 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Internative, 146 In-verrumai, 108 Ir, 124 Ir, 124 Ir, 124 Iraco-p-pavittiro-p-pallavatoraiyan, 2 Iram, 229 Iran jám-verrumai, 109 Iranjú, 107, 140, 141 Iraváninra, 186 Irèval, 148, 149 Irii, 150 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Irum, 220 Irum,	
Infinite of purpose, 187, 226 Infinitive, 153, 194 Infinitive mood, 183 Iiiga, 163 Iiiga, 163 Initial consonant, 61, 62 Initial vowel, 41, 42 Injunction, 181 Iiikē, 56 Iiigatorkū, 143 Iispū, 56 Iiigatorkū, 144 Inscription, 118, 119, 148, 175, 184 Instrument, 196, 219 Instrumental, 116, 222 Interjection, 195 Intermediate Demonstrative pronoun, 135 Intermediate stage, 179 Interrogative base, 139 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 Iii-vērrumai, 108 Ir, 124 Irāca-p-pavittira-p-pallavataraiyas, 2 Iram, 229 Iran 229 Iran 3, 107, 140, 141 Iravāninra, 186 Irēvā, 148, 149 Irīti, 150 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Irum, 220 Irum,	•
Infinitive, 153, 194 Infinitive mood, 183 Inga, 163 Initial consonant, 61, 62 Initial vowel, 41, 42 Injunction, 181 Inke, 56 Inkh, 55 Ingatorka, 143 Inscription, 118, 119, 148, 175, 184 Inscription, 118, 119, 148, 175, 184 Inscription, 196, 219 Instrumental, 116, 222 Interregative base, 139 Interrogative base, 139 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 In-veryumai, 108 Ir, 124 Iravaninya, 186 Iravaninya, 186 Iravaninya, 186 Iravan, 229 Irannin, 107, 140, 141 Iravaninya, 186 Ireval, 148, 149 Irii, 150 Irum, 229 Irum, 220 Irum,	6
Infinitive mood, 183 Inga, 163 Inga, 163 Initial consonant, 61, 62 Initial vowel, 41, 42 Injunction, 181 Inke, 56 Inke, 55 Ingatorka, 143 Inpi, 56 Instrument, 196, 219 Instrumental, 116, 222 Intermediate Demonstrative pronoun, 135 Intermediate Stage, 179 Interrogative base, 139 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 In-verrumai, 108 Ir, 124 Iraca-p-pavittirap-pallavatoraiyan, 2 Iram, 229 Iram, 229 Iran 107, 140, 141 Iravaninga, 186 Ireval, 148, 149 Irii, 150 Irum, 229 Irum, 220 Iru	*
Inga, 163	
Initial consonant, 61, 62 Initial vowel, 41, 42 Injunction, 181 Inke, 56 Inkh, 55 Ispatorkh, 143 Isph, 56 Insertion, 71 Instrument, 196, 219 Instrumental, 116, 222 Interpediate Demonstrative pronoun, 135 Intermediate stage, 179 Interrogative verb, 196 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 Ispatorkh, 108 Ir, 124 Iraca-p-pavittire-p-pallavataraiyan, 2 Iram, 229 Iram, 229 Iransimya, 186 Iravāninga, 186 Iravāninga, 186 Iravāninga, 188 Iri, 150 Irum, 229 Irum, 220 Irum,	
Initial consonant, 61, 62 Initial vowel, 41, 42 Injunction, 181 Ink\$\tilde{s}\$, 56 Ink\$\tilde{s}\$, 55 Ingatork\$\tilde{u}\$, 143 Inscription, 118, 119, 148, 175, 184 Inscription, 118, 119, 148, 175, 184 Inscription, 118, 119, 148, 175, 184 Inscription, 196, 219 Instrumental, 116, 222 Interjection, 195 Intermediate Demonstrative pronoun, 135 Intermediate stage, 179 Interrogative verb, 196 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 In-v\tilde{e}_r\tilde{v}_r\tilde{u}_m\tilde{a}, 108 Ir, 124 Ir, 124 Ir\tilde{e}_r\tilde{u}_m\tilde{c}_n\tilde{e}_re	prakțu), /1
Initial vowel, 41, 42 Injunction, 181 Ink\$\tilde{k}\$, 56 Ink\$\tilde{k}\$, 55 Ingator k\$\tilde{u}\$, 143 Inp\tilde{u}\$, 55 Ingator k\$\tilde{u}\$, 143 Inp\tilde{u}\$, 55 Ingator k\$\tilde{u}\$, 143 Inp\tilde{u}\$, 55 Ingator k\$\tilde{u}\$, 143 Insertion, 71 Instrument, 196, 219 Instrumental, 116, 222 Interjection, 195 Intermediate Demonstrative pronoun, 125 Interregative base, 139 Interrogative base, 139 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 In-verrumai, 108 Ir. 124 Ir. 127 Iran \$\tilde{u}\$, 68 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 80 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Iran, 29 Iran \$\tilde{u}\$, 68 Interval \$\tilde{u}\$, 69 Interval	
1	
Take 56	ovotá (=nirvartyam),
Tikke, 56	
Interventian 196	8
Instrument 196 219	
Interpretation 118, 119, 148, 175, 184 Insertion 118, 119, 148, 175, 184 Insertion 171 Instrument 196, 219 Instrumental 116, 222 Interpection 195 Intermediate Demonstrative pronoun 135 Intermediate stage 179 Interrogative pronoun 125, 137 Interrogative pronoun 125, 137 Interrogative verb 196 Intervocalic 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive 146 Invergramai 108 Ir. 124 Ir. 126 Ir. 127 Ir. 127 Ir. 128 Ir. 129 Ir. 140 Ir. 150 Ir. 140 Ir. 140 Ir. 150 Ir. 140	J
Igrii, 143, 144 Inscription, 118, 119, 148, 175, 184 Insertion, 71 Instrument, 196, 219 Instrumental, 116, 222 Interjection, 195 Intermediate Demonstrative pronoun, 135 Intermediate stage, 179 Interrogative base, 139 Interrogative pronoun, 125, 137 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 Ip-vērrumai, 108 Ir, 124 Irāca-p-pavittirap-pallavataraiyas, 2 Iram, 229 Iran 229 Iran 429 Iranfām-vērrumai, 109 Iranfū, 107, 140, 141 Iravāniņra, 186 Irēval, 148, 149 Irii, 150 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Iruvar, 124, 140	29, 47, 219
Inscription, 118, 119, 148, 175, 184 Insertion, 71 Instrument, 196, 219 Instrumental, 116, 222 Interjection, 195 Intermediate Demonstrative pronoun, 135 Intermediate stage, 179 Interrogative base, 139 Interrogative pronoun, 125, 137 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 In-veryumai, 108 Ir, 124 Ir, 124 Irata-p-pavittire-p-pallavataraiyan, 2 Iram, 229 Iran, 229 Iranti, 107, 140, 141 Iravaninga, 186 Ireval, 148, 149 Irii, 150 Irum, 229 Iruvar, 124, 140	36.
Insertion, 71 Instrument, 196, 219 Instrumental, 116, 222 Interjection, 195 Intermediate Demonstrative pronoun, 135 Intermediate stage, 179 Interrogative base, 139 Interrogative pronoun, 125, 137 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 In-verrumai, 108 Ir, 124 Iratal Iratal Iratal Iranjam-verrumai, 109 Iranjam-verrumai, 109 Iranjam-verrumai, 109 Iranjam-verrumai, 109 Iranjam, 107, 140, 141 Iravaninga, 186 Ireval, 148, 149 Irii, 150 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Iruwar, 124, 140	Otto, 59, 60, 123
Instrument, 196, 219 Instrumental, 116, 222 Interjection, 195 Intermediate Demonstrative pronoun, 135 Intermediate stage, 179 Interrogative base, 139 Interrogative pronoun, 125, 137 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 In-vērrumai, 108 Ir, 124 Irāca-p-pavittirap-pallavataraiyan, 2 Iram, 229 Iran, 229 Irantiu, 107, 140, 141 Iravāniņra, 186 Irēval, 148, 149 Irii, 150 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Iruvar, 124, 140	
Instrumental, 116, 222 Interjection, 195 Intermediate Demonstrative pronoun, 135 Intermediate stage, 179 Interrogative base, 139 Interrogative pronoun, 125, 137 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 Ig-vērrumai, 108 Ir, 124 Irāca-p-pavittirap-pallavataraiyas, 2 Iram, 229 Iran jām-vērrumai, 109 Iranţā, 107, 140, 141 Iravaninga, 186 Irēval, 148, 149 Irii, 150 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Iruma, 229 Iruvar, 124, 140	
Interjection, 195 Intermediate Demonstrative pronoun, 135 Intermediate stage, 179 Interrogative base, 139 Interrogative pronoun, 125, 137 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 Ig-vērrumai, 108 Ir, 124 Irāca-p-pavittira-p-pallavataraiyas, 2 Iram, 229 Iram, 229 Iranţām-vērrumai, 109 Iranţām, 107, 140, 141 Iravaninga, 186 Irēval, 148, 149 Irii, 150 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Iruvar, 124, 140	
Intermediate Demonstrative pro- noun, 135 Intermediate stage, 179 Interrogative base, 139 Interrogative pronoun, 125, 137 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 Ig-vērrumai, 108 Ir, 124 Irāca-p-pavittirap-pallavataraiyas, 2 Iram, 229 Iran jām-vērrumai, 109 Iranţām-vērrumai, 109 Iranţām, 107, 140, 141 Iravaninga, 186 Irēval, 148, 149 Irii, 150 Irum, 229 Iruvar, 124, 140 Iravar, 124, 140 Iravar, 124, 140 Ka, 191 Kacam, 22 Kada, 23 Kada, 23 Kabaņam, 22 Kakkaippāţiniyam, 1 Kala, 17, 120, 127, 13 Kalam, 142, 143 Kalam, 142, 143 Kalam, 142, 143 Kalam, 142, 143 Kalitokai, 152 Kam, 204 Kampar, 179	99
noun, 135 Intermediate stage, 179 Interrogative base, 139 Interrogative pronoun, 125, 137 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 Ig-verrumai, 108 Ir, 124 Iraca-p-pavittirep-pallavataraiyan, 2 Iram, 229 Iram, 229 Iranfüm-verrumai, 109 Iranfüm, 107, 140, 141 Iravaninga, 186 Ireval, 148, 149 Irii, 150 Irum, 229 Iruvar, 124, 140	K
Intermediate stage, 179 Interrogative base, 139 Interrogative pronoun, 125, 137 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 In-vērrumai, 108 Ir, 124 Irāca-p-pavittirap-pallavataraiyan, 2 Iram, 229 Iran tām-vērrumai, 109 Irantām-vērrumai, 109 Irantām, 107, 140, 141 Iravāninga, 186 Irēval, 148, 149 Irii, 150 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Iruvar, 124, 140 Iravar, 124, 140 Iravar, 124, 140 Iravar, 124, 140 Iravar, 179 Iravar, 179	
Interrogative base, 139 Interrogative pronoun, 125, 137 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 Ip-vērrumai, 108 Ir, 124 Irāca-p-pavittirap-pallavataraiyan, 2 Iram, 229 Iran tām-vērrumai, 109 Irantām-vērrumai, 109 Irantām, 107, 140, 141 Iravāninga, 186 Irēval, 148, 149 Irii, 150 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Iruvar, 124, 140 Iravar, 124, 140 Iravar, 124, 140 Iravar, 124, 140 Iravar, 179 Iravar, 179 Iravar, 179	
Interrogative pronoun, 125, 137 Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 In-vērrumai, 108 Ir, 124 Irāca-p-pavittirap-pallavataraiyan, 2 Iram, 229 Iram, 229 Irantām-vērrumai, 109 Irantām-vērrumai, 109 Irantām, 107, 140, 141 Iravāninga, 186 Irēval, 148, 149 Irii, 150 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Iruvar, 124, 140 Iravar, 179 Iravar, 179	22
Interrogative verb, 196 Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 Ig-vērrumai, 108 Ir, 124 Irāca-p-pavittirap-pallavataraiyan, 2 Iram, 229 Iram tām-vērrumai, 109 Irantām-vērrumai, 109 Irantām, 107, 140, 141 Iravāninga, 186 Irēval, 148, 149 Irii, 150 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Iruvar, 124, 140 Kaļa, 23 Kaļai, 23 Kaļai, 23 Kaļai, 13 Kaļai, 142, 143 Kaļārampan, 1 Kaļe, 23 Kaļi, 150 Kaļippi, 147 Kalittokai, 152 Kam, 204 Kampar, 179	
Intervocalic, 25, 27, 34, 35, 73, 98, 101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 In-verrumai, 108 Ir. 124 Ir. 124 Iraca-p-pavittirap-pallavataraiyan, 2 Iram, 229 Iran 107, 140, 141 Iravaninga, 186 Ireval, 148, 149 Irii, 150 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Iruvar, 124, 140 Irevar, 124, 146 Irevar, 125 Irevar, 126 Irevar, 127 Irevar, 127 Irevar, 127 Irevar, 128 Irevar, 128 Irevar, 129 Irevar, 124 Irevar, 128 Irevar, 128 Irevar, 128 Irevar, 129 Irevar, 124 Irevar, 128 Irevar, 129 Irevar, 128 Irev	
101, 124, 152 Intransitive, 146 In-vērrumai, 108 Ir, 124 Ir, 124 Iraca-p-pavittirap-pallavataraiyan, 23 Iram, 229 Irantám-vērrumai, 109 Irantán, 107, 140, 141 Iraváninra, 186 Irēval, 148, 149 Irii, 150 Irum, 229 Iruvar, 124, 140 Iravar, 124, 140 Iravar, 124, 140 Iravar, 124, 140 Irantám-vērrumai, 109 Iravar, 124, 140 Iravar, 124, 146 Iravar, 124, 146 Iravar, 125 Iravar, 125 Iravar, 126 Iravar, 127 Iravar, 127 Iravar, 127 Irav	
Intransitive, 146 In-verrumai, 108 Ir. 124 Ir. 124 Iraca-p-pavittirap-pallavataraiyan, 2 Iram, 229 Iran 229 Iran 107, 140, 141 Iravaninga, 186 Ireval, 148, 149 Irii, 150 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Iruvar, 124, 140 Iravar, 179	22
In-vērrumai, 108 Ir. 124 Ir. 124 Irāca-p-pavittirap-pallavataraiyan, 2 Iram, 229 Iran 229 Iran 107, 140, 141 Iravāninga, 186 Irēval, 148, 149 Irii, 150 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Iruvar, 124, 140 Kākkaippāṭiṇiyam, 1 Kaļ, 117, 120, 127, 13 164 Kaļa, 23 Kālan, 142, 143 Kālārampan, 1 Kāļē, 23 Kāļārampan, 1 Kaļē, 23 Kāļīi, 150 Kaļippi, 147 Kalittokai, 152 Kam, 204 Kampar, 179	
Ir. 124 Ir. 124 Ir. 124 Irāca-p-pavittirap-pallavataraiyan, 2 Iram, 229 Iran 140, 107, 140, 141 Iravāninga, 186 Irēval, 148, 149 Irii, 150 Irum, 229 Irum, 229 Iruvar, 124, 140 Iravar, 179	finivam, 1
1r, 124	20, 127, 134, 136, 140,163,
Irāca-p-pavittirap-pallavataraiyan, Kaļa, 23 Kalai, 23 Kalai, 23 Kālam, 142, 143 Kālam-vērrumai, 109 Kālārampan, 1 Kaļē, 23 Kālai, 150 Kaļē, 150 Kaļipi, 147 Kalitokai, 152 Kam, 229 Iravar, 124, 140 Kampar, 179 Kampar, 179	
2 Kalai, 23 Kālam, 142, 143 Kālam, 142, 143 Kālam, 142, 143 Kalārampan, 1 Iranjā, 107, 140, 141 Kalē, 23 Kālāi, 150 Kalījā,	
Iram, 229 Kālam, 142, 143 Kaļārampan, 1 Iranjām-vērrumai, 109 Kaļārampan, 1 Iranjā, 107, 140, 141 Kaļē, 23 Iravāninga, 186 Kaļīi, 150 Irēval, 148, 149 Kalitokai, 152 Irum, 229 Iruvar, 124, 140 Kampar, 179	
Iran fam-vērrumai, 109 Kaļārampan, 1 Iran fa, 107, 140, 141 Kaļe, 23 Iravāninga, 186 Kaļīi, 150 Irēval, 148, 149 Kalippi, 147 Irii, 150 Kalittokai, 152 Irum, 229 Kam, 204 Iruvar, 124, 140 Kampar, 179	143
Iranju, 107, 140, 141 Kale, 23 Iravaninga, 186 Kalii, 150 Irival, 148, 149 Kalippi, 147 Irii, 150 Kalittokai, 152 Irum, 229 Kam, 204 Iruvar, 124, 140 Kampar, 179	
Iravaninga, 186 Kalii, 150 Iraval, 148, 149 Kalippi, 147 Irii, 150 Kalittokai, 152 Irum, 229 Kam, 204 Iruvar, 124, 140 Kampar, 179	23
Irêval, 148, 149 Kalippi, 147 Irii, 150 Kalittokai, 152 Irum, 229 Kam, 204 Iruvar, 124, 140 Kampar, 179	
Irii, 150 Irum, 229 Iruvar, 124, 140 Kalittokai, 152 Kam, 204 Kampar, 179	7
Irum, 229 Iruvar, 124, 140 Kampar, 179	152
Iruvar, 124, 140 Kampar, 179	4.50
	70
The description of the Control of th	бастилия Q6 135
197	
Iśai, 55 Kamun, 194	1

INDEX.

Kāmpū, 56	Kataii, 150
Kan, 40	Kajam, 22
Kānacpratyaya, 186	Kattal, 181
Kanamal, 189	Katta-p-panninen, 153
Kanarese, 23, 55, 56, 68, 108, 128,	Kättuvittäl, 148
131, 164, 165	Kättuvitten, 153
	Kawvutal, 32
Kañci, 58	Kavaii, 150
Kañji, 58	
Kankai, 22	Kavirājamārga, 56
Kānkai, 55	Kecam, 22
Kānke, 55	Kelii, 150
Kanmatarayam, 211	Kelulan, 21
Kanmatarayan, 209	Kenkatīram, 21
Kannanai, 205	Ketäyu, 21
Kanja, 56	Ketu, 40
Kantapurayam, 96	Kēţū, 40
Kantú, 56	Kēvala-tātu, 146
Kantha, 53	Khamun, 194
Kan-vēzrumai, 108	Kilaviyākkam, 216
Карри, 56	Kingu, 168, 169, 171
Кари, 56	Kira, 184
Kara, 23	Kiru, 168, 171
Kara, 23	Kokki, 55
Karai, 23	Kolii, 151
Karai, 23	Koļvākku, 193
Karam, 188	Kol-yangi 207, 213
Kare, 23	Корартаі, 116
Kare, 23	Konki, 55
Kārita-k-kārita-k-kāritam, 148	Konnar, 198
Kārita-k-kāritam, 148	Kottabadu, 49
Kāritam, 148, 149	Kövil, 82
Kārita-tātu, 146, 152	Köyil, 82
Kariyal, 120	Krināyatē, 145
Kariyāļ, 113	Krti, 142
Kariyan, 120	Krt-pratyaya, 204
Kariyan, 112	Krtva, 194, 226
Kariyar, 112	Krtvapi, 191
Kariyay, 113	Kriya, 142
Kariyirë, 112	Kubja-Visnuvardhana, 56
Karmadhāraya, 209, 212	Kuļīi, 150
Karma-karaka, 176	Kulina, 204
Karmani, 165	Kulinan, 204
Karôti cēt, 194, 226	Kumārilabhatta, 30
Karta, 175	Kumbha-kāra, 213
Kartari, 165	Kunam, (=quality), 200
Karu-nigam, 208, 209	Kunavirapantitar, 1, 19
Karuń-kutirai, 208	Kungu, 56
Karuppu, 200	Kunku, 56
Kartum, 194	Kungal (-15pa), 71, 72, 93
Karwei, 142, 143, 202	Kuntukattu, 144
Kāšikā-vyākhyā, 36	Kurai-c-cor-kilavi, 199, 200
Kātantra, 4	Kural, 147, 183, 186, 193, 229
Kafai, 23	Kuricil, 112

Kuricil, 112 Kuril (=hrasva), 4 Kurippu (=feeling), 199 Kurippu-vinai, 141, 143, 145 Kurreluttu, 52 Kurrikaram, 16 Kurriyal-ikaram, 12-16, 51 Kurriyal-ukaram, 12-16, 27, 33, 51, Kurriyal-ukara-p-punariyal, 91, 96 Kurrukaram, 16 Kurukkam, 204 Kuvaii, 150 Kuvalai, 39 Ku-vērrumai, 108 Kattar, 112 Kattir, 112

Labial, 21, 43, 67 Labial vowel, 20 Labio-dental, 43, 47 Limit, 219 Locative, 108, 109, 222 —absolute, 224 Logical predicate, 218 Lajjā, 64 Language, 159 -Its nature.., 60 Lankai, 62 Lengthening, 173 -by compensation, 129 Like-vowel, 35 Lingual consonant, 58 Linguistic phenomena, 104 Logicians, 104, 142 Löpa, 71, 72, 92

M

Mac Donell, A. A. Dr., 31
Madhu, 104
Madhyama, 10
Madhyēgāram, 211
Madras, 47
—University, 68
Madura, 46, 69
Mahābhāṣya. 4, 10, 28, 32
Mahat, 202
Mai, 204
Majja, 64
Makaļ, 113, 121
Makaļē, 113
Makaļēr, 121

Makalirkal, 121 Makan, 112 Makayen, 145 Makar, 121 Makara-k-kurukkam, 15, 16 Makatūu, 120, 121 Makkal, 108, 112, 120, 121 Makkaal, 112 Makkāl, 112 Malayalam, 23, 30, 31, 44, 49, 50. 55, 56, 69, 159 Manar, 125 Mañcal, 58 Mañjal, 58 Manimēkalai, 133, 139 Manoratha, 34 Manortha, 34 Mantar, 120, 121 Manusmṛti, 36 Mapitah, 153 Mar, 124, 125 Mar, 124, 125 Maraati, 35 Marai, 174 Marai-vinai, 173 Marti, 150 Masculine, 104, 108, 123, 135, 137 Mat, 129 Mataiyan, 39 Mālāti, 145 Matra, 12, 13, 16, 19, 27, 31, 34, 35. 37, 38, 39, 52, 60, 78 Matukal, 117 Mayilainatar, 1, 2, 12 Meaning, 108, 124 Medial anaptyxis, 28 consonant, 61 Medieval period, 5, 18, 24, 27, 38, 39, 46, 60, 65-67, 92, 113, 119, 125, 130, 132, 153, 155, 160, 169, 172, 175, 178 Melippů, 204 Metamorphose, 159 Mey (=gātra), 52 Meypiritätal (=vikāra), 71, 72, 92 Melleluttu, 7, 47, 52 Mellinam, 7, 8, 43, 45, 47, 48, 52 Metathesis, 85 Mikutal (=āgama), 71, 92 Min, 40 Min, 40 Mistaken notion, 203 Mitarruvali, 7

Modern period, 5, 18, 38, 39, 46, 61, 65, 66, 101, 113, 119, 125, 130, 132, 136, 153, 155, 160, 194 Monosyllabic root, 40 Mood, 153, 166 Morphological side, 167 Mūlādhāra, 10 Munaii, 151 Münyam-verrumai, 109 Manra, 140 Murti, 150 Murräytam, 14 Murruvikka, 148 Mutalătii, 174 Mutal-eluttii, 10, 12 Mutal-vērgumai, 109 Muții, 150 Müvor, 124, 140 Muyarci, 43

N

Nacaii, 151 Naccipārkkiņiyar, 1, 3, 15, 37, 82 113, 158, 160, 163, 167, 170, 187. 188, 193, 213 Nāda, 9 Nadai, 30 Nade, 30 Naga, 54 Nāiruktas, 201, 202 Nakam, 54 Nallär, 25 Nallör, 25 Natuar, 124 Nammai, 40, 111 Nammāl, 40 Nampii, 112 Namul, 194 Namul-pratyaya, 188 Nanju, 64 Nālam, 64 Nālāyirappirapantam, 57, 133, 162, 164, 165, 170 Nam, 40, 111, 124, 126-128, 131, 219 Nāma, 105 Nāmadhātu, 145 Namākhyātē, 105 Nāmam, 106 Nan, 126, 128, 159 Nankai, 120 Nankal, 125, 127, 129 Nankam vērrumai, 109

Nankay, 112 Nапрауа, 57 Nanual, 2, 3, 12, 13, 16, 27, 28, 66, 69, 113, 115, 116, 120, 128 Nappalar, 8, 9, 12, 16, 17, 19, 38, 39, 41, 46, 61, 62, 65, 97-100, 104, 106, 107, 113, 114, 120, 127, 129, 134, 142-144, 148, 149, 160, 161, 163, 168, 176, 179-181, 185, 186, 196, 200, 203, 205, 209, 213, 222, 223 228, 229, 231 Nantathurusa, 212 Nanuntu, 133 Narakar, 107 Narrattan, 1 Nasals, 6-8, 52, 55, 56 Nata, 205 Natural gender, 104 Natya-śāstra, 18, 43 Nayappittar, 148 Negation, 172, 174 Negative, 194 particle, 172 past participle, 187 33346 voice, 173, 179, 180, 182, 183 Nēkkū, 129 Neminatam, 65, 100 Netil (=dirgha), 4 Netteluttii, 52 Nepulceviyan, 143 Neuter, 123, 137 Neuter plural, 108, 173, 174 Neutral vowel, 33 Ni, 40, 130 Nic, 152 Nijanta, 149 Nidha, 202 Nigamān, 201 Nilai-moli, 72 Nilaii, 151 Nilam, 142, 143, 204 Nilanka fantāy, 213, 214 Nim, 130, 131 Nig, 132 Niggn, 151 Ninkal, 130, 131 Ninmē, 177 Nippai, 40 Nippal, 40 Ningal, 113 Ningdy, 113 Nipāta, 105, 195, 196, 198

Nir, 130, 131	Overlapping, 167, 216
Niraii, 151	Ownership, 219
Nigaii, 151	P
Nirkal, 130, 131	P
Nirukta, 3, 105, 198, 201, 202, 231	Pada, 184
Nitya-samāsa, 213	Padajātāni, 105
Nivir, 130, 131	Padom, 104, 116
Nivirkal, 130, 131 Nivirkal, 130, 131	Padma, 28
Nokků, 130, 134	Pāda-pūraņa, 198
Nominal root, 202, 203	Paduma, 28
Nominative case, 35, 36, 40, 104,	Paga, 56 Pakāppatam (=indivisible word),
109, 110, 204	205
Nominative absolute, 224	Pākkiyam, 49
Nonpikal, 12?	Pakkii, 192, 193
Noun, 106, 108, 124, 164, 197, 200,	Pāl (from paku-to classify), 107
204, 216	Pala, 23, 140
Noun in apposition, 217	Pala-nel (=bahu-vriki), 209
Novan, 174	Palar, 140
Number, 110, 120, 123, 216, 217,	Palatal, 20, 43, 47, 67
229	explosive, 24
Numeral, 106, 141	vowel, 20
Nunkönunnai, 132	Palate, 58
Nun, 132	Pala-a-k-kötü, 35
Niigtai, 33, 133	Polaimai, 24
Nüpmarapů, 52, 58	Palam, 23
	Palamai, 24
0	Palarpal (Gender of many human
N. 100 A. 100	beings), 107, 117, 119, 120, 181 Palavinpāl (Gender of many neuter
Object, 219	objects), 108, 115, 117, 119, 121,
in association, 219	181
Og, 123	Palla, 23, 140
Onranpal (neuter singular), 108,	Pampanaiyan, 145
115, 119, 121, 181	Pās, 191, 193
Onrii, 107, 140, 141	Panā-attu, 35
Optative, 153, 180, 181, 182, 189	Panamparanar, 1-3
Optional, 152	Pañcam, 55
Open sound, 19	Pañcami, 109
Or, 124	Pandam, 55
Organ of articulation, 33	Panjam, 55
" of production, 7	Pānini, 9, 29, 36, 42, 66, 72, 93, 104,
of speech, 26 Origin, 169, 174, 189, 193	109, 112, 116, 165, 231
	Panini's Astadhyāyī, 4
Orunků, 215	Pāṇini's šikṣā, 3, 6, 8, 70 Grammar, 3-5, 37, 53, 204,
Orușatů, 141	221
Oruvay, 140 Oruvar, 124, 140, 217	Panivittāl, 148
Orralapetai, 15, 16, 60, 61	Panniru-toti, 209
Otu-vergumai, 108	Panpu (= jāti, guna, kriyā), 199
Otti, 147	Panpu-t-tokai, 207-209, 213
Ottuvittāl, 148	Panpu-p-peyar, 206
Orti, 150	Pantam, 55

Pará, 10	Pen-makan, 108
Paraicci, 204	Pen-pal (feminine singular), 107,
Parallel, 197	120, 181
Parallelism, 43, 221	Pentirkal, 117
Parappaipatam, 165, 166	Periphrastic formation, 179, 182,
	185
Parasmaipada, 145, 165	Periyatirumoli, 169
Paratritau, 70	
Parent Dravidian language, 24, 33	Person, 154, 216
" Indo-European language 2	Personal pronoun, 125
Parimel-alakar, 229	—termination, 154, 195
Paripājal, 169, 186	Peru, 176
Pārppaņi, 204	Perunkatai, 132
Parppar, 112	Peruntévanar, 1, 8, 19, 146
Părppanacci, 204	Peyar (=nāma), 104-141
Parppir, 112	Peyaral, 182
Participial noun, 115, 122, 145, 183,	Peyar-c-col, 120
205, 215	Peyar-eccam, 183
Participial suffix, 213	Peyar-iyal, 105, 216
Participle, 225	Peyarkkuvai, 147
Parts of speech, 104	Peyar-p-pöli, 200
Passive, 150, 151	Peyar-vērrumai, 109
-affirmative, 153, 175	Phonological principle, 54
-affirmative relative participle,	Phonetic system, 51
183, 185	Phonology, 3
-negative, 153, 177	Phonological side, 202
-negative relative participle, 183,	Pi, 148, 149, 153
185	Pinākapāni, 37
-voice, 165, 175	Piga, 140
Past Participle, 168, 213, 217	Pira-vipai, 145, 146, 151
-perfect, 171	Pirayōkavivēkam, 2, 3, 209, 231
-tense, 154, 159, 167, 168, 171, 225	Pirinilai, 198
and the state of t	Pirintii, 215
Pasyanti, 10	Place of action, 219
Paja-c-ceyten, 153	Plosive, 21, 43
Patañjali, 4, 10, 28, 29, 31	Plural, 110, 137, 140, 160, 217
Patii, 150	—exclusive, 128
Patieruppattu, 4, 118	-inclusive, 128
Pattiram, 25	-interrogative pronoun, 218
Pattiyam, 25	Pluralising particle, 120, 124, 127,
Pattú, 141	131, 164
Pattuppāţţū, 149-151	Plutah, 112
Pățiwvittăl, 148	Pluta, 27, 36-38, 83
Pāţu, 40	Plutāksara, 27
Patu, 40, 176	Poetry, 200
Patupākkū, 193	Pōkal, 202
Patutal, 193	Pokki, 147
Pățuvitten, 153	Polintānuntai, 133
Payam, 23	Pēņārai, 164
Payilatovarrai, 201	Ponenai, 205
Pavananti, 1	Pon-mēni, 207
Pauvam, 32	Ропрапрариам, 143
Pāvatattitaņ, 205	
Pāyiram, 2	Pope Rev. Dr., 50, 70, 133, 215
a ugarum, a	* Porii, 150

Porhutam, 207 Porut-putai-peyarcci, 143 Poruttu, 119, 126, 191 Potential, 181 Prāyah, 212 Predicate, 216, 229 Prakrti, 71 Prastirnam, 45 Prätiśäkhyas, 3, 4, 10, 20, 29, 42, 45 53, 64, 71, 72, 93, 105, 231 Pratyabhivādaņa, 36 Pratyaya, 110, 116, 195, 196, 198, Pratyākāra, 166 Prayatna, 43 Pre-christian era, 1, 30 Pre-historic usage, 159 Preposition, 197, 198 Present participle, 213, 217 -perfect, 171 -tense, 167, 168, 225 Primary, 105 -compound, 208 -eluttu, 51 -sound, 10, 11, 37, 53, 66 —vowel, 18, 41 Principle of economy of effort, 134, Pronoun, 106, 120, 125, 164, 217 Pu, 204 Puli-vir-hentai, 208 Pulive, 113 Pullimayankiyal, 73, 82 Pulutam, 27 Pulutäkkaram, 27 Punariyal, 72, 75 Puranagara, 4, 118, 133, 140, 149, 150, 151, 158, 170, 229 Puran-kotuttān, 198 Puttamittiranar, 1 Puttriyati, 145 Progressive Assimilation, 89 Pronoun derived from numerals, 125, 140 Prosody, 36 Prothetic anaptyxis, 28 Proximate Demonstrative pronoun, 135

Q

Quality-noun relation, 208 Quantity, 195

R

Raghava Aiyangar, M. 69

Raman, 62 Ramanam, 111 Ranayaniyasakha, 28 Ratna, 28 Recipient, 196, 197, 219 Reflexive pronoun, 125, 136, 137, Regressive Assimilation, 89 Relative participle, 207 —pronoun, 125, 138, 139, 225 Rēļatē, 202 Remote demonstrative pronoun, 135 Request, 179-181 Rgvēda, 58, 64 -Pratisakhya, 31, 42, 63, 105 Right, 200 Root of the tongue, 44, 46 Rūpāvatāra, 213

S

Sabda-brahman, 10 Sacatéh, 122 Saina literature, 117 Sakajārana, 201 Saktam, 104 Saktuh, 122 Samāsa, 206, 207, 209 Sama-wda, 28 Sambhu, 36 Sambuddhi, 109 Samvära, 9 Sandhi, 71, 169 Sandhyakşarâni, 29 Sangam period, 4, 5, 133, 146, 152, 158, 169, 172, 177, 182, 190 Sangam work, 222 Sanskrit, 41, 49-51, 57-59, 63, 64, 66, 69, 101, 102, 113, 120, 122, 123, 129, 134-136, 139, 142, 144, 145, 149, 152, 153, 165, 166, 179, 180, 181, 187, 190, 191, 202, 209, 215, 218, 219, 222-224, 226, 231 Sanskrit grammarians, 197, 200, 201 grammatical terms, 4 -grammatical theories. 4 -phonetics, 59 Saptami, 109 Sartavě, 190 Satr-pratyaya, 186 Sattva, 105

Sattvābhidhāyakam, 105 Sāṣṭhī, 107 Saunaka prātišākhya, 20 Savukkiyam, 32 Secondary, 104 —consonant, 60 —eļuttú, 51 —sound, 11-13, 17, 34, 37, 39, 64, 65 —vowel, 19, 34, 41 Semantic, 202 Semi-vowel, 6-8, 24, 43, 47, 48, 52 Sense, 159 Sentence, 216 Shortened i, 53 —ai, 17, 18, 39 —au, 18, 39, 40 —1 60	Subject, 196, 216, 219, 229 Sukla-yajurvēda Prātišākhya, 31, 42, 72, 104, 105 Superiority, 198, 218 Suptinantam, 104 Surd, 49, 51, 54 —consonant, 26 Svārtha, 152 Svāsa, 9 Swaminatha lyer, R., 70, 135-137, 139 Swedish, 60 Syllable, 153, 174 Symbol, 52 Syntactic agreement, 192 —interrogative, 138 Syntax, 208, 216
J, 60 J, 60	T
—ℓ, 60 —m, 53, 61	142000420
-v, 60	Ta, 40 Tabu, 55
-y, 60	Tadhkava, 21, 26, 27
-nasal, 60	Taddhita suffix, 93, 204
-aytam, 65	Taii, 151
-voiceless consonant, 60	Taittiriya Pratisakhya, 30, 45, 53,
Sibilant, 50	66,72
Side-word, 196	Taku, 176
Siksā, 10	Talai-vafi, 7
Similarities, 41, 61, 101, 218, 224	Talii, 150
Simple, 150-152 —verb, 145	Tam, 131, 136, 137, 219
—vowel, 18	Tarpurujan, 209
Single sound, 37	Tatpuruşa, 207, 212
Singular, 110, 135, 137, 160, 217,	Tattitay, 205 Tamil, 41, 49-51, 53-57, 63, 64, 68,
230	69, 96, 101, 102, 110, 113, 118,
Smaram, 194	120, 123, 129, 134, 139, 145, 149,
Social ablative, 222	151, 153, 164, 175, 177, 181, 202,
Sonants, 50	209, 211, 218, 219, 221, 225, 226,
Sparša, 48	231
Speech-sounds, 4, 6, 7, 9	Tamil alphabet, 51, 57
Speed, 225	-characters, 50
Sphāvitah, 153	—districts, 28
Spoken Tamil, 54, 55	—grammar, 194
Sprsta-prayatna, 48	—Grammarians, 200, 202, 220
Standing word, 73	-Lexicon, 68
Sthiti, 144	—Sangam, 69
Sthiyatë, 144	—Script, 57 Tamilian laws of sound, 58
Stri, 28 Strong case, 40	Tamilians, 50, 212
Substitution, 71, 162	Tamāram, 62
Suci, 104	Tān, 40, 111, 136, 137, 219
Suffix, 124	Tan, 165, 166
Suffix agglutinating type, 118	Tandai, 54

Tandam, 49	Tokai (composition, samāsa), 205-
Tangai, 55	207, 213
Tanjore, 46, 58	Tokai-marapu, 72, 82
Tanka, 62	Tokai-p-paţalam, 209
Tankal, 219	Tokuti, 215
Tankai, 55	Tolaicci, 147
Tannai, 40, 111	Tolkappiyam, 2-4, 18, 20, 24, 25, 31,
Tangal, 40	33, 36, 38, 43, 45, 48, 52, 58, 66
Tantai, 120	69, 75, 76, 82, 93, 96, 97, 105, 113,
Tanu, 137	124, 135-137, 139, 140, 167, 170,
Tay-viyai, 145-147, 151	179, 196, 201, 223, 228, 231
Tapasyati, 145	Tolkappiya-mutar-cüttiravirutti, 2,
	3, 12, 18, 28, 48, 49
Tapu, 55, 149 Tarani, 23	Tolkappiyanar, 1-7, 9-12, 17-21, 24,
	30, 32, 34, 36-39, 41-43, 45, 48, 51,
Tarti, 150	54, 58, 60-62, 64-66, 71-73, 78, 82,
Tarkii, 191	91, 93, 94, 96-101, 104, 105, 107-
Taru, 152, 153	111 113-118 124-129 121 122
Tafaii, 151	111, 113-118, 124-128, 131, 133,
Tafai-p-poruf, 173	134, 137, 138, 140-144, 146, 153,
Tava, 200	154, 158, 162, 163, 167, 171, 174,
Tēkkankāy, 90	175, 177-181, 183, 187-189, 191-
Telugu, 23, 31, 49, 50, 55, 57, 58, 68,	193, 195, 196, 198-202, 204-206,
118, 164, 165	208, 209, 212-214, 216, 219, 223,
Tenkay, 91	229, 231
Ten-kilakkû, 209	Tolkappiyanarum Pulli-y-eluttum,
Tense, 153, 166, 167, 225	69 T. 3: 26
Tense-sign, 167, 169	Tolii, 36
Tense-value, 167	Tolil, 142, 143
Tenues, 49	Toluminkal, 178
Terinilai vigai, 145, 153	Tone, 174
Teratavar, 152	Tonnülvijakkam, 2, 18
Terra-v-ekoram, 35	Transitive, 146
	Trichinopoly, 46, 58
Tērrātavar, 152	Trilled tongue-point, 59
Těvakai, 114	Triple causal, 148, 153
Tēvāram, 57, 133, 162, 164, 165, 169	Trtiya, 109
Teyvaccilaiyar, 1, 188, 199, 200, 206,	Tu, 204
207, 213	Tulu, 55, 56
Ticai-c-col, 131	Tumanta, 191
Tikatacakkaram, 96	Tulaii, 151
Time, 154	Turalinkan, 1
-of action, 219	Tuvantuvam, 209
Tinnevelly, 47, 57	Tuviku, 209
Tinai, 120, 218	Tvat, 134
Tin, 166	Tvanta, 192
[] [[] [] [] [] [] [] [] [] [
Tip of the tongue, 44-46	U
Tiraffu, 101	0.520
Tiriyatu, 175	Ubhayapadi, 165
Tirukkural, 215	Udāna, 8
Tirttal, 202	Udāttah, 112
Tirupati, 2	Uddēiya, 3
Tirutti, 147	Uhlenbeck, C. G. Dr., 59
Tiruvācakam, 133	Uja, 143

240	III DEIG
11/1- 27	Uvai, 135, 136
U!la, 23	Uval, 135, 136
Ulappikkum, 148	
Um, 134	Uvamai-t-tokai, 207, 213
Ummai-t-tokai, 207, 208, 212	Uvan, 135, 136
Un, 132	Uvar, 135
Unka], 134	Uyarkkuvai, 147
Unaspirated consonant, 49	Uyartinai, 107, 111, 113, 114, 117,
Unde, 56	120, 122, 127, 129, 134, 140, 164,
	218, 227
Unii, 151	Uyir (=prāņa), 52
Unit of speech, 216	Uyir-alapetai, 13, 14, 16, 18, 34,
Initary nature, 206	
-sound, 65	38
Janenai, 204	Uyir-mayankiyal, 73, 76
Injaval, 122	Uyir-mey, 16, 17
Japavan, 122	
Intan, 122	v
Injar, 122	Va, 40, 205
Jutarkal, 122	Vacaka, 197
Intent, 122	Vacukkal, 110, 127
/nfőn, 122	Vaikhari, 10
Intir, 122	Vakyapadiya, 224
Juju, 56, 144, 151	Vajaii, 151
padhmaniya, 20, 63, 66, 69, 70	Vaisatēyas, 204
pagrāmam, 198	Vakku, 26, 27
pakarēti, 197	Vallar, 174
Ipalaksanam, 36	Valaiyan, 204
I pamāna-pūrvapadakarmadhāra	
	The control of the co
207	Valiti, 204
I pamita-samāsa, 212	Valaiyan, 204
Jpasarga, 105, 197	Vallelutti, 47, 52
Tpasarga-nipātāļi, 105	Valligam, 7, 8, 43, 47, 48, 52
Ipayapati, 165	Vamanan, 1
Uraii, 150	Van, 191, 193
Uraittanan, 159	Vannan, 204
Uraiyāciriyar, 1, 3, 38	
Priccel (=important word),	104 Vannātti, 204
100 203 216	
199-203, 216	Vaisnava literature, 117
Trimai, 200	Vandān, 55
Triyiyal, 201	Vanikan, 120
Urii, 150	, Vantan, 55, 112, 196
Uru, 200	Vantāņā, 196
Urukuvittäl, 148	Vantanam, 54
Uruffi, 147	Vantār, 112
Tanting 72 73	
Urupiyal, 72, 73	Vantir, 219
Uruvu, 52, 53	Vantīrē, 112
Ujaittii, 143	Vantirkal, 219
Ujaiya, 119, 143	Vantiyān, 152
Itam-patu-mey (the consonant	that Vanki, 55
is associated together), 73, 94	, 98 Var, 124
	Vararků, 190
Ufti, 150	Vararuci, 209
Utu, 135, 136	Vanamada hariba 5
U.:.tii, 135	Vararuci's kārikā, 5 Varnavikāra, 71, 72
Uv, 135	

V 153 163
Varu, 152, 153
Varu-moli, 72
Vascutal, 32
Vaittiyanāta-tēcikar, 2, 231
Vaiyāpikan, 1
Varatú, 174
Vāļāyāka, 182
Valtti, 147
Vārtal, 202
Vättiyam, 25
Vayppiyan, 1
Vedic etymology, 231
Vekuļān, 174
Vekuviriyan, 22
Vellassi, 204
Velippatu-col, 201
Vēļvikudi Grant, 68
Vendryes, 55, 83
Verii, 150
Verb, 197, 200, 204, 216
Verbal noun, 193, 215
-root, 201, 202
Vērā, 144
Vērupatukkappatuvatū (=vikār-
yam), 224
Vērrumai (=vibhakti), 4, 108
Vērrumai-c-col (=differentiating
word). 196
Vērrumai-p-punarcei (=case-rela-
tion sandhi), 72
Vērrumai-t-tokai, 207, 212
Vetiyan, 204
Veti, 202
Vi, 148, 149, 153
Vibhahti, 4
Vidheya, 3
Vilimarapii, 113
Viļi-vērrumai (=sambuddhi), 109
Vikara, 71, 72, 93
Villag, 25
Villon, 25
Vilumans, 202
Vinai (=Kriyā), 104, 141-194
Vinai-k-kurippii, 144
Vinai-p-poli, 200
Viyai-t-tokai, 207, 213
Vinai-y-eccam, 183, 187, 193
Vināša, 72
Vinnar, 25
Vinnavar, 25
Vinnör, 25
Vinigraharthlyau, 198
Vinson, M. J. 28, 29, 50, 60, 69, 118,
124, 161, 162, 171
32

Viraii, 151 Viracēliyam, 2, 27, 39, 93, 96, 97, 115, 116, 120, 146, 158, 170, 178, Viravu-t-tinai, 107 Visarga, 63, 69, 70 Viti, 174 Viti-c-ceyappāttuvinai, 175 Vitu, 40 Viščsana-parvapada-karmadhāraya, 207, 208 Višėsya-pūrvapadalų, 211 Viții, 40 Vivrta-prayatna, 48 Vivara, 9 Viyanköl, 153, 181 Viyattam, 27 Vocable, 123 Vocative, 36, 108, 109, 112, 113 Voice, 153 Voiced consonant, 53, 55, 57, 60 Voiceless consonant, 7, 8, 14, 33, 34, 52, 54, 55, 56, 66 Vowel, 11, 12, 14, 17-19, 26, 52, 55, 56, 64, 66, 73, 151 Vowel-consonant, 12, 14, 16, 65 -glide, 33, 34 -gradation, 40, 120 -secondary sound, 17 -variation, 111 Vrddhi letters, 93, 97 Vrddhi-sandhi, 101 Vu, 204 Vyakta, 27 Vyasa, 206 W

Weak case, 40 Wish, 180, 181 Word-formation, 5, 204

Y

Yā, 137 Yām, 124, 126, 127 Yāmay, 62 Yāŋ, 40, 126, 128, 159, 218 Yāṅkal, 126, 127, 164 Yantiram, 62 Yatākkiramam, 209 Yathākrama, 209 Yār, 137, 218 Yāar, 137 Yāska, 3, 104, 198, 201, 202 Yāvai, 137 Yāvai, 137 Yāvai, 137, 139, 218 Yāvāi, 139 Yāvar, 137 Yāvatu, 137 Yuşmat, 134



